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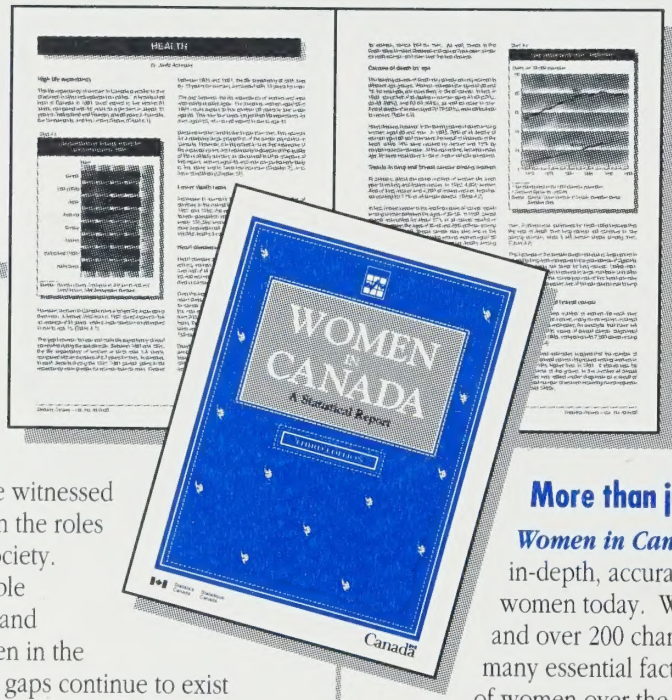
INCOME SECURITY FOR SENIORS ☐ WORKING AND STUDYING AT HOME

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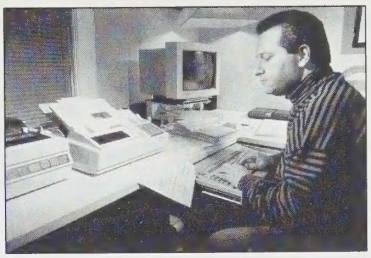
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ON OUR COVER:
Longshoremen (1940) oil on masonite, 50.8 x 63.4 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:
Miller Brittain was born in Saint John, New Brunswick in 1912. His early art training took place at Miss Holt's Art School and the Art Students' League. His artistic work was interrupted in 1942 when he enlisted in the R.C.A.F. In 1944, he was awarded the Distinguished Flying Cross. Resuming his painting after the war, he exhibited many of his works throughout North America and was a member of the Canadian Society of Graphic Art. Mr. Brittain died in 1968.

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Under reciprocal international social security agreements, however, a person residing in Canada can add periods of residence in a reciprocating country to years of residence in Canada to qualify for OAS. An OAS pension may also be paid indefinitely outside of Canada if the pensioner has twenty years of residence in Canada after age 18. For those not meeting this requirement, OAS pension can be paid for six months outside of Canada and resumed when the pensioner returns to Canada.

Starting in 1990, OAS benefits have been taxed back from seniors with high personal incomes. Seniors with incomes above a threshold ($53,215 in 1994) are required to repay OAS benefits at a rate of 15% of income above this threshold. Seniors with very high personal incomes ($84,195 or more in 1994) repay all of their OAS pensions.

The maximum monthly benefit for those receiving OAS in 1994 was $387.[2] OAS benefits are fully indexed to the cost of living as measured by the Consumer Price Index. Despite this, however, the relative value of OAS in relation to the average industrial wage has declined because wage increases in the 1970s were greater than increases in the overall cost of living. In 1964, OAS benefits represented 20% of the average industrial wage. By 1983, the proportion had declined to 15% and has been maintained at that level ever since.

Similar to the situation in the population of seniors, over one-half (58%) of OAS recipients in 1994 were women. As women tend to live longer than men, the proportion of OAS recipients who were women increased from 53% among those aged 65 to 69, to 75% among those aged 90 and over.

Guaranteed Income Supplement OAS pensioners with little or no income other than OAS may receive full or partial Guaranteed Income Supplement (GIS) benefits. The amount of GIS to which an individual is entitled is determined by marital status and income. If the pensioner is married, the combined income of the pensioner and spouse is taken into account. The value of a pensioner's assets, however, is not considered when eligibility and benefit amounts are determined.

Single pensioners with incomes exceeding $11,064 in December 1994 were not eligible for GIS. Married couples in which both were pensioners were only eligible for GIS if their combined income did not exceed $14,448. Married couples in which only one person was a pensioner and the other spouse was ineligible for Spouse's Allowance received GIS up to a family income of $26,784.

In 1994, the maximum monthly benefit from OAS with a GIS benefit ranged from $847 for a single pensioner to $1,374 for a married couple in which both were receiving OAS and GIS ($687 each).[2] If a GIS pensioner leaves Canada, however, the supplement is paid for six months and then discontinued until the pensioner returns to Canada. GIS benefits are not subject to income tax.

Most GIS recipients in 1994 were women (65%). With advancing age, the proportion of recipients who were women increased from 57% of those aged 65 to 69, to 63% of those aged 70 to 74, to 78% of those aged 90 and over. Although this is partly because women tend to live longer than men, it is also because women, particularly the very elderly, are more likely than men to have little income other than OAS benefits.

Spouse's Allowance also assists some low-income seniors The spouse of a pensioner receiving GIS may be eligible for Spouse's Allowance (SPA) if the spouse is aged 60 to 64 and has ten years of residence in Canada. Eligibility is subject to an income test similar to that for the GIS. Also, like GIS, SPA is payable for six months following the departure of either spouse from Canada, and can be resumed only when both members of the couple return to Canada.

In 1979, Extended SPA was introduced. This allows the spouse of a deceased OAS pensioner to remain eligible for SPA until age 65 or until remarriage. An amendment in 1985 provides for payment of SPA to any widowed person aged 60 to 64 who meets the ten-year residency requirement. This is called Widowed SPA. The SPA program, however, does not cover low-income people who were never married, those separated or divorced and low-income couples where both spouses are aged 60 to 64.

For couples, the SPA benefit is based on their combined income, whereas for beneficiaries of Extended SPA and Widowed SPA, it is based on the surviving spouse's income only. Married couples with a combined income exceeding $20,688 in 1994 were ineligible for SPA, while those who were widowed were ineligible if their personal income exceeded $15,168. As with GIS, assets are not considered in determining entitlement.

For married couples, the maximum full monthly SPA payment is equal to the full basic OAS pension plus the maximum GIS at the married rate. In 1994, the maximum SPA payment for a married couple was $687.[2] That year, those who were widowed could receive a maximum of $758.

In 1994, almost all recipients of SPA were women (91%). Those receiving Extended and Widowed SPA benefits (93%) were slightly more likely than those who were married (90%) to be women.

OAS benefits have helped many seniors living with low incomes, particularly women While many seniors have low incomes, particularly those with little income other than OAS, the introduction

[2] Calendar-year average of the maximum benefit payable each month.

of government income security programs has led to an improvement in seniors' incomes. Prior to the introduction of the OAS program in 1952, Canada's elderly had suffered relative economic hardship. In 1951, for example, the median income of unattached individuals aged 65 and over, the majority of whom were women, was 36% of the median income of all Canadians.[3] The median income of families headed by a senior was 51% of the median income of all families. By 1983, the same statistics were 74% and 60%, respectively, while by 1993, they were 81% and 68%.

Seniors living alone with little income other than OAS, however, still have incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs), and thus, are considered to be living with low incomes.[4] About 80% of those in this situation in 1993 were women. OAS and GIS, however, do help seniors to have incomes that are closer to the LICOs. According to the Survey of Consumer Finances, 59% of low-income families and unattached individuals who received OAS benefits in 1993 had incomes that were at least 80% of the value of the LICOs.

Within the last decade, as the C/QPP program became available to more seniors and C/QPP benefit entitlements grew, the proportion of families headed by seniors who were living with incomes below the LICOs dropped. By 1993, 9% of families headed by seniors were living with low incomes, down from 19% in 1980. Among those living alone, however, the proportion with low incomes has fallen but is still high. The proportion of unattached senior women with incomes below the LICOs fell to 56% in 1993 from 72% in 1980. The proportion of senior men in that situation fell to 38% in 1993 from 61% in 1980.

OAS, including GIS, however, is a more important income source for senior women than for senior men. This is because men are more likely than women to have participated in the labour force, and with that participation, to have had higher career earnings than women. Men are also less likely than women to have worked part time or to have had a discontinuous employment history. Thus, men tend to have higher C/QPP retirement benefits than women and are more likely to have an employer-sponsored pension.

In 1993, 42% of the incomes of senior women were from OAS and GIS. This was down from 45% in 1985 and 61% in 1971.[5] Nonetheless, this proportion is much higher than that of men. In 1993, only 24% of the incomes of senior men were from OAS and GIS, down from 26% in 1985 and 29% in 1971.

Many seniors with high family incomes continue to benefit OAS recipients with high personal incomes now repay part of their OAS benefits. Those with high family incomes, but lower personal incomes, however, are able to avoid the claw-back tax. Accounting for any repayment of OAS resulting from the claw-back tax, virtually 100% of seniors with incomes of $15,001 to $60,000 received OAS benefits in 1993.[6] Among seniors living with family members (such as senior couples), 93% of those with family

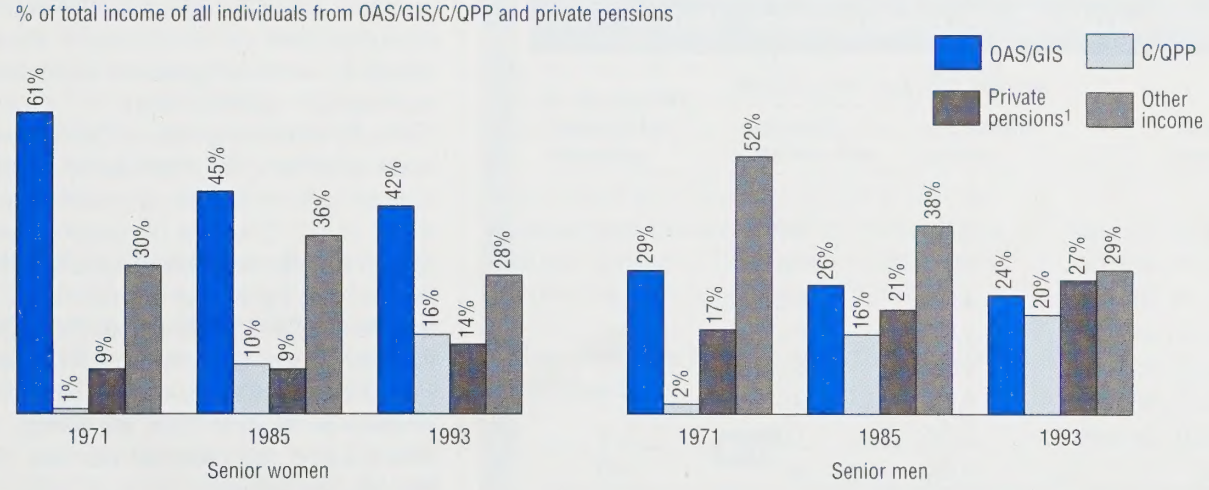
[3] Median income is the level where half of the population has a higher income and half has a lower income.

[4] These LICOs were determined from an analysis of 1992 family expenditure data. Families who, on average, spent 20% more of their total income than did the average family on food, shelter and clothing were considered to have low incomes. The LICO for an individual living alone in Canada's largest cities in 1993 was $16,482.

[5] Statistics Canada Catalogue 13-588, No. 2.

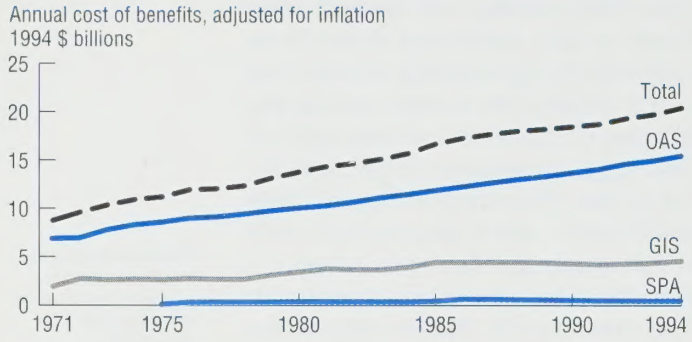
[6] Estimates for this section were generated using Statistics Canada's Social Policy Simulation Database and Model.

Senior women have a much larger share of income from OAS and GIS benefits



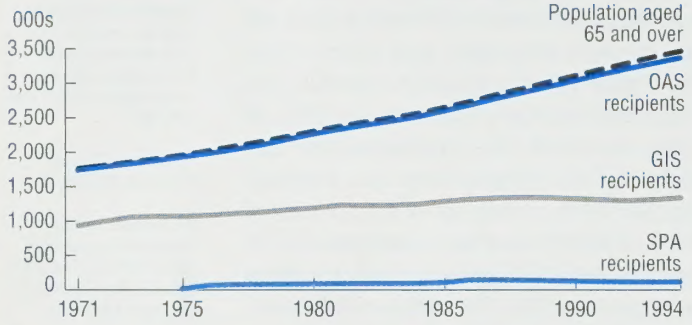
[1] Includes employer-sponsored retirement pensions, superannuation and annuities.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-588, No. 2 and Survey of Consumer Finances.

Total payments for OAS/GIS/SPA exceeded $20 billion in 1994



Source: Human Resources Development Canada, Statistics Related to Income Security Programs, March 1995.

Virtually all seniors receive OAS benefits



Source: Human Resources Development Canada, Statistics Related to Income Security Programs, March 1995.

Average OAS/GIS/SPA benefit payment and distribution of total OAS/GIS/SPA benefit payments, 1993[1]

Family income	Average annual benefit payment: Unattached seniors	Average annual benefit payment: Families with seniors	Distribution of total benefit payments
	$		%
$15,000 and under	8,245	8,365	33
$15,001-$20,000	5,087	12,819	14
$20,001-$30,000	4,615	9,955	21
$30,001-$40,000	4,589	8,515	10
$40,001-$50,000	4,582	8,275	7
$50,001-$60,000	4,224	8,021	5
$60,001 and over	2,115	7,049	9
Total	6,860	9,117	100

[1] Amounts are net of OAS claw-back tax.
Source: Statistics Canada, Social and Economic Studies Division, Social Policy Simulation Database and Model.

incomes over $60,000 received OAS benefits. In contrast, only 55% of unattached seniors with incomes that high received OAS benefits.

The average payment for OAS, GIS and SPA per family receiving this transfer also remained high, regardless of family income. In addition, at all family income levels, the average amount received by seniors living alone was half that of seniors in families (largely senior couples). The average payment to unattached seniors exceeded $4,000 for those with incomes up to $60,000. Among families with seniors (largely senior couples), the average payment exceeded $8,000 in every income group up to $60,000. Among seniors in families with incomes exceeding $60,000, the average OAS payment was about $7,000. Unattached seniors with incomes that high, however, received an average of only $2,100.

Overall, most seniors have lower incomes and as a result, most of the total benefit amount extended for OAS, GIS and SPA in 1993 was directed toward seniors with lower incomes. That year, 68% of the total amount of OAS benefits extended were given to seniors with family incomes of $30,000 or less. About 22% of benefits were extended to seniors with family incomes between $30,001 and $60,000, and 9% to seniors with incomes exceeding $60,000.

OAS program costs rising According to data from Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC), the cost of OAS benefit payments has risen steadily since the 1970s. From 1971 to 1994, payments for Old Age Security more than doubled to $15.4 billion from $6.8 billion (in 1994 dollars). The cost of GIS payments also increased over this period rising to $4.5 billion from $1.9 billion (in 1994 dollars). The cost of the SPA program rose from $261 million in 1976 to over $600 million in 1986 (in 1994 dollars). Since then, spending on this program has fallen each year, reaching $431 million in 1994.

Virtually all of the growth in OAS program payments since the early 1970s can be explained by increases in the population of seniors. According to HRDC, from 1971 to 1994, the number of recipients of OAS benefits increased to 3.4 million from 1.7 million, while the number of seniors in the population increased to 3.5 million from 1.8 million. Over the same period, OAS payments per recipient (in 1994 dollars) remained stable. After some initial increases in the early 1970s, the average monthly OAS payment has remained between $370 and $380 (in 1994 dollars).

Increases in the cost of GIS have largely been due to a combination of increases in the average benefit and population aging. Since the 1970s, the maximum GIS benefit increased faster than the

cost of living. The maximum monthly benefit for a single pensioner grew to $460 in 1994 from $337 in 1980, and $203 in 1971 (in 1994 dollars). The average GIS benefit also increased, but not as quickly because the proportion of seniors eligible for maximum GIS benefits declined over the period. The average monthly GIS benefit increased from about $200 during the 1970s to over $280 in the mid-1980s (in 1994 dollars). The average benefit then declined to about $270 in the early 1990s before rising again to $285 in 1994.

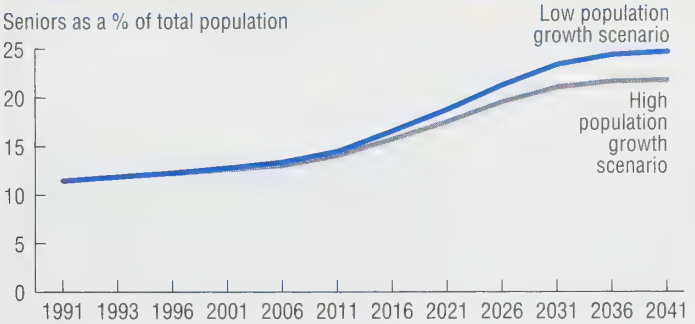
The number of recipients of GIS increased annually from 932,000 in 1971 to 1.3 million in the mid-1980s. Since then, the number of recipients has remained constant each year. As the number of OAS recipients increased much more quickly over this period, the proportion of OAS recipients receiving GIS benefits has declined, falling from over 55% in the early 1970s to less than 40% in the early 1990s. In addition, the proportion of GIS recipients receiving full GIS benefits has declined from about 50% to 15%. Much of this change is due to the rising income of seniors from the maturing of C/QPP. A much larger proportion of seniors today are receiving C/QPP benefits, and their benefit entitlements are larger, thus seniors are increasingly ineligible for GIS benefits.

Very few seniors receive SPA benefits. From 1976 to the early 1980s, the number of beneficiaries increased to over 80,000 from 59,000. In the mid-1980s, when SPA was opened up to all widowed people aged 60 to 64, the number of beneficiaries increased to 140,000. Since then, the number of beneficiaries has dropped, reaching 109,000 in 1994. Similarly, the average monthly SPA benefit, in 1994 dollars, fluctuated between $320 and $340 from the late 1970s to the mid-1980s. It increased to $365 in 1986 and then declined annually to $330 in 1994. As with GIS, the decline in the number of beneficiaries and in the average benefit has much to do with an increasing proportion of people qualifying for only a partial benefit or for no benefit at all. From 1979 to 1994, the proportion of SPA recipients receiving partial SPA benefits increased to 92% from 88%.

Financing of OAS depends on demographics

OAS, GIS and SPA pensions are all funded from general tax revenue and, unlike private pensions, are administered on a "pay-as-you-go" basis. Taxpayers helping to pay for these programs today rely on a statutory promise that taxpayers in the future will do likewise, and thus, provide them with a similar pension in their retirement years. Each year, the level of taxes required to finance these payments is affected by the ratio of beneficiaries to the number of taxpayers. As a result, the cost of these plans is increasing because of population aging.

Seniors expected to account for over 20% of Canada's population by 2031



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-520.

According to Statistics Canada's population projections, the proportion of Canadians aged 65 and over is expected to increase from 12% in 1993 to between 22% and 25% in 2041, depending on population growth. Over the same period, the proportion of the population traditionally considered of working age, those aged 18 to 64, is expected to fall from 64% in 1993 to about 58% in 2041. Therefore, the overall cost of OAS benefits is expected to rise, while the proportion of the population financing these programs through taxation is expected to fall. Even in the near future, forecasts from HRDC indicate that total spending on OAS, GIS and SPA could reach $22.6 billion in 1997, an 11% increase from 1994.

As funding is provided from general tax revenue, there is a risk that taxpayers in the future may not continue to support these programs in their existing format, especially if tax increases are required to continue program funding. As a result, there may be pressure on the federal government to increase the age of retirement and to further direct funds to those with the greatest financial need.

- For more information on Old Age Security, see **Inventory of Income Security Programs in Canada**, January 1993, Human Resources Development Canada Catalogue H75-16/1993E.

Jillian Oderkirk is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends.**

CANADA AND QUEBEC PENSION PLANS

by Jillian Oderkirk



The Canada and Quebec Pension Plans (C/QPP) were introduced in 1966 to provide some protection against loss of income due to retirement, disability and death for members of the paid labour force and their dependents. As not all people with employment have access to an employer-sponsored pension plan and the benefits from employer-based plans differ greatly, the introduction of C/QPP ensured that those who work would have basic protection. Retirement benefits from these plans were designed as a second tier of income security for seniors, to be paid in addition to Old Age Security (OAS).

The Canada Pension Plan covers all regions of Canada except Quebec, which exercised its constitutional prerogative to establish a comparable pension plan. Both plans, however, are similar in terms of eligibility criteria and benefits, and are funded by the contributions of employees, employers, self-employed people and interest from investment of the plan's funds.

C/QPP provides monthly retirement, disability and survivor's pensions, disabled contributors' children's benefits, orphan's benefits as well as lump-sum death benefits. Most of the total benefit payments extended for C/QPP, however, are for programs directed toward seniors. In 1994, C/QPP programs providing benefits to seniors (retirement, survivor's and death benefits) accounted for 80% of total spending on CPP and 92% of total spending on QPP. That year, 87% of all CPP beneficiaries were aged 60 and over.

In order for Canadians and their dependents to be eligible for C/QPP benefits, they must have contributed to CPP or QPP for a specific period which varies with the type of benefit requested. The amount of retirement, survivor's, disability and death benefits a beneficiary is entitled to receive is based on the average adjusted pensionable career earnings of the contributor. Eligibility for C/QPP benefits is not based on income or assets.

C/QPP benefit coverage does not extend to the never employed, the chronically unemployed or those with very low earnings; a person must have earned income equalling about 10% of the average industrial wage to earn benefit credits ($3,400 in

1994). Consequently, women doing unpaid work at home are the largest group of Canadians not covered.

Women who have not participated in the labour force may be entitled to a survivor's pension upon the death of their spouse. Women who are divorced, however, are particularly vulnerable to losing C/QPP benefits. As a result, provisions in CPP and QPP allow pension credits to be split between spouses following divorce if the relationship lasted one year or more. CPP also allows pension credits to be split following marital separation or the breakdown of a common-law union. Following a credit split, each spouse is entitled to an equal share of pension benefit credits for the time that they were together. Credit splitting is not allowed, however, if it will be detrimental to both spouses or if provincial law permits people to waive such a split in a spousal agreement. Currently, only Saskatchewan and British Columbia have such a law.

All benefits under C/QPP are payable regardless of where the beneficiary lives in Canada or abroad. In addition, Canada has reciprocal international social security agreements with many other countries. These agreements reduce restrictions that may prevent Canadians from receiving pensions from other countries, reduce restrictions on the payment of pensions abroad, and permit continuity of coverage when a person is working temporarily in another country. They also prevent situations where people would have to contribute to two countries' plans for the same work, and make it easier for people to become eligible for benefits through the adding together of credits earned under the plans of more than one country.

Retirement benefits can now begin at age 60 Retirement pensions accounted for most of the spending on CPP (65%) and QPP (68%) benefits in 1994. A retirement pension is payable to a person aged 60 and over who has made one contribution to CPP or has made contributions to QPP for one year. People aged 60 to 64 who apply for this pension must have retired from paid work, although they can later resume paid work and continue receiving benefits. C/QPP applicants aged 65 and over are eligible for retirement benefits even if they continue working.

Prior to 1987 for CPP and 1984 for QPP, retirement pension payments began at age 65. Since then, retirement pension payments can begin as early as age 60, although full benefits are not paid until age 65. For those applying before age 65, benefits are reduced by 0.5% for each month between their current age and their 65th birthday. Also, people can wait until age 70 before applying for benefits. For them, benefits are enhanced by 0.5% for each month their age exceeds their 65th birthday. Thus, benefits can be reduced or increased by as much as 30% depending on a person's age at the start of benefits. Once entitlement is calculated, it is indexed annually to increases in the cost of living as measured by the Consumer Price Index.

C/QPP retirement benefits equal one-quarter of average career earnings Annual earnings for each year from age 18[1] until the time of a claim for C/QPP benefits are considered when benefit entitlements are calculated. Annual pensionable earnings, however, cannot exceed a set maximum amount which is roughly equal to the average industrial wage ($34,400 in 1994). Seniors whose annual earnings have always equalled or exceeded this amount receive the maximum retirement pension.

The annual amount of retirement pension that people are entitled to receive is equal to 25% of their average adjusted pensionable career earnings. Although retirement benefit calculations are complex, basically each year of career earnings is adjusted for any inflation in wages and salaries that has occurred over time. The annual benefit is valued at 25% of the average of these earnings.[2]

There are provisions which allow people to drop periods of low or zero earnings from the calculation of C/QPP benefits. The "general drop-out" provision eliminates months of low or zero earnings up to 15% of the total contributory period. This drop-out provision, however, cannot reduce the contributory period to less than ten years. If a person defers application for retirement benefits beyond age 65, months of pensionable earnings up to age 69 may be substituted for months of low or no earnings prior to age 65.

In addition to this general drop-out, there is a special "childrearing drop-out" provision that was introduced to the QPP in 1977 and to the CPP in 1983 (retroactive to 1978). This allows mothers or fathers who have years of low or no earnings because they were caring for children under age 7, to exclude those years from the calculation of lifetime earnings.[3]

Number of C/QPP retirement beneficiaries growing rapidly From 1971 to 1986, the number of recipients of C/QPP retirement benefits increased from 241,000 to 1.6 million. In 1987, the year CPP retirement benefits began to be available to seniors starting at age 60, the number of C/QPP recipients jumped to 1.9 million and then continued to grow rapidly, reaching 2.9 million in 1994.

[1] Earnings from 1966 to the time of the claim are pensionable for those who were over age 18 in 1966.

[2] For a more detailed discussion of this calculation, see the **Mercer Handbook of Canadian Pension and Benefit Plans**, CCH Canadian Limited, 1991.

[3] Periods when contributors received C/QPP disability pensions are also dropped from the calculation of lifetime earnings for C/QPP retirement benefits.

This rapid growth has much to do with the design of C/QPP. In the early years, many seniors had retired before the initiation of C/QPP in 1966, and hence, had not contributed to the program and were ineligible for benefits. With time, however, the proportion of seniors eligible for benefits increased. In addition, with rising labour force participation among women, a much larger proportion of senior women today qualify for retirement benefits than was the case during the early years of the program. As a result, the proportion of the population of retirement age[4] entitled to receive C/QPP retirement benefits increased to 61% in 1994, from 44% in 1980 and less than 20% in the early 1970s. In addition, the proportion of the population aged 65 and over outside of Quebec who were receiving CPP retirement benefits increased to 70% in 1994 from 45% in 1980 and 14% in 1971.

Proportion of senior women entitled to C/QPP retirement benefits up The proportion of women aged 25 to 54 with paid employment has increased rapidly since the mid-1970s, rising to 70% in 1994 from less than 50% in 1976. In addition, since the late 1980s, almost two-thirds of women aged 45 to 54 have had paid employment.

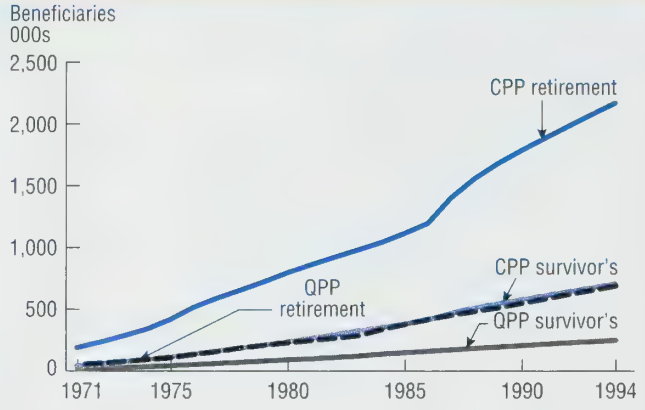
With rising labour force participation among women, the proportion of women who had contributed to C/QPP and are, therefore, entitled to C/QPP retirement benefits as seniors has grown. The proportion of retirement benefit recipients who were women increased to 45% in 1994 from 33% in 1981. In addition, among the youngest people receiving retirement benefits in 1994 (aged 60 to 64) 48% were women. Among older seniors (aged 75 and over) receiving benefits, 44% were women.

Total and average retirement benefit costs rising rapidly As the C/QPP program matured, the average benefit entitlement also grew. From 1971 to 1981, the average monthly retirement benefit from CPP more than doubled to $254 from $104 (in 1994 dollars). Since then, increases in the average amount have been more modest. From 1981 to 1994, the average monthly benefit increased 48% to $376. Similarly, the average monthly retirement benefit from QPP increased to $348 in 1994 from $260 in 1981 and $113 in 1971 (in 1994 dollars).

The average retirement benefit increased to 55% of the maximum retirement benefit in the early 1980s from 40% in the early 1970s. This proportion then dropped to just over 50% in the mid-1980s, when the option of retirement at age 60 (but with reduced benefits) was introduced. By the 1990s, however, the proportion had returned to about 55% each year.

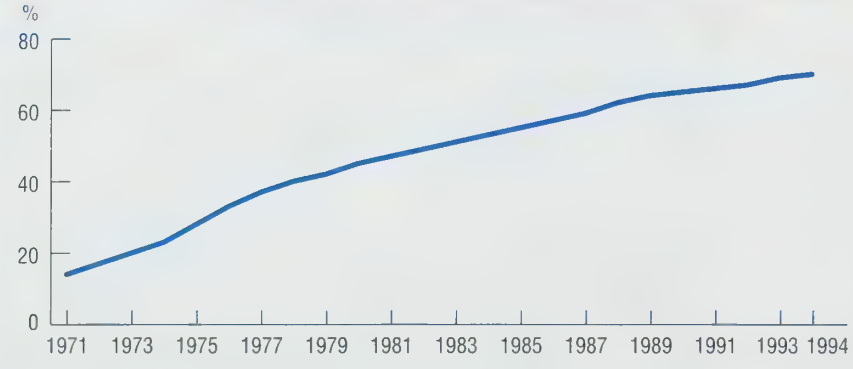
As a result of an increasing number of beneficiaries and rising average benefit entitlements, the total cost of retirement benefits has increased substantially. By 1994, the total cost of CPP retirement benefits reached

Number of CPP retirement pension beneficiaries rising rapidly[1] CST



[1] The earliest possible retirement age dropped from 65 to 60 in 1987 for CPP and in 1984 for QPP.
Source: Human Resources Development Canada, Statistics Related to Income Security Programs, March 1995.

Proportion of seniors receiving CPP retirement benefits increasing[1] CST



[1] CPP retirement beneficiaries aged 65 and over as a proportion of the senior population outside of Quebec. Some seniors outside of Quebec receive benefits from QPP.
Source: Human Resources Development Canada, Statistics Related to Income Security Programs, March 1995.

$9.8 billion, up sharply from $2.4 billion in 1980 and $233 million in 1971 (in 1994 dollars). For QPP, the total cost rose to $2.9 billion in 1994 from $703 million in 1980 and $72 million in 1971 (in 1994 dollars). Since the inception of CPP, the largest annual increase in the cost of retirement benefits was in 1987, the year these benefits began to be available to recipients aged 60 to 64. Between 1986 and 1987, the total cost of CPP retirement benefits increased by $1 billion (in 1994 dollars).

Survivor's pension available to spouses of deceased contributors Survivor's pension accounts for the second largest proportion of spending on C/QPP benefits (14% of CPP and 22% of QPP in 1994). Under both CPP and QPP, these benefits are available to the surviving spouse of a deceased person who had made contributions to the plans for a minimum qualifying period. For survivor's pension, however, eligibility rules and benefit levels differ between the two plans.

CPP benefits are payable to the surviving legal or common-law spouse if he or she had lived with the deceased contributor for at least one year immediately prior to death. For QPP, the rules differ, as survivors qualify with one year of cohabitation only if there is or will be a child born to the union and neither spouse was legally married to another person. Otherwise, three years of cohabitation are required for eligibility.

The spouse of a deceased contributor who is also eligible for a retirement pension can apply for a combined survivor's and retirement pension. Rules for this pension differ between CPP and QPP. For both plans, the combined benefit cannot exceed the maximum retirement pension.[5]

Survivor's pension depends on the circumstances of the surviving spouse Full survivor's pension is available to surviving spouses aged 45 to 64, and to surviving spouses under age 45 who are disabled or who have dependent children. There is a pro-rated reduction in the benefit for each month the survivor is under age 45 if the survivor is not disabled and has no dependent children. A surviving spouse who is under age 35 and has neither a disability nor dependent child is ineligible for a survivor's pension until age 65.

Survivor's pension benefits consist of a flat-rate benefit plus 37.5% of deceased contributor's retirement pension entitlement. In 1994, the maximum monthly CPP and QPP survivors' pensions for those aged 65 and over was $417. For those under age 65, the flat-rate benefit is higher under QPP than under CPP. The maximum CPP survivor benefit was $385 for those under age 65, while the maximum QPP benefit was $660 for those aged 55 to 64, and $579 for those under age 55.

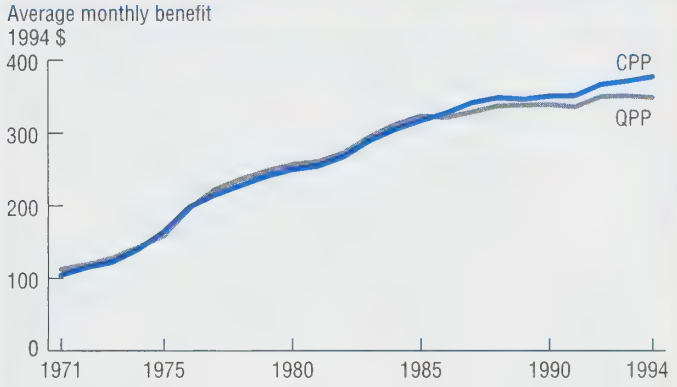
Number of survivor's pension recipients rising and most are women The number of recipients of C/QPP survivor's pension increased rapidly over the past three decades to 956,000 in 1994 from 326,000 in 1980, and less than 100,000 in the early 1970s. At least part of the increase in recent years was due to changes to QPP in 1984, and to CPP in 1987, which allowed people who had remarried to continue receiving benefits.

Most recipients of CPP survivor's pensions in 1994 were women aged 60 and over (72%). A much smaller proportion were women under age 60 (17%), men aged 60 and over (8%), and men

[4] The earliest possible retirement age dropped from 65 to 60 in 1987 for CPP and in 1984 for QPP.

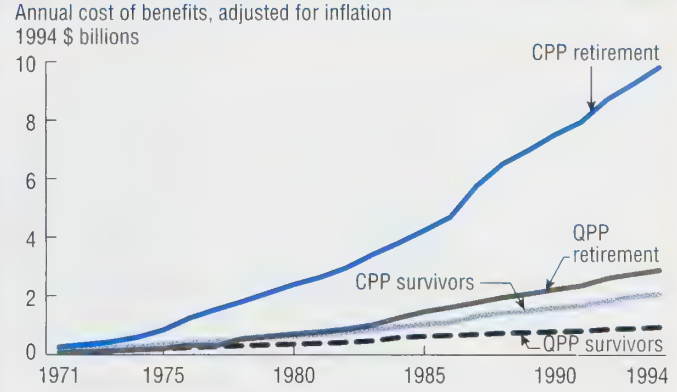
[5] Those aged 60 to 64 can receive the maximum retirement benefit plus the flat-rate portion of the survivor's benefit. See **Inventory of Income Security Programs in Canada**, January 1993, Human Resources Development Canada Catalogue H75-16/1993E.

Average monthly retirement benefit growing[1] CST



[1] Benefit amount adjusted for inflation.
Source: Human Resources Development Canada, Statistics Related to Income Security Programs, March 1995.

Cost of CPP retirement benefits reached $9.8 billion in 1994 CST



Source: Human Resources Development Canada, Statistics Related to Income Security Programs, March 1995.



under age 60 (3%). Although the total proportion of men receiving survivor's benefits is small, it was higher in 1994 (11%) than in 1981 (7%).

Cost of survivor's pension is rising Survivor's benefits depend on the deceased contributor's employment history and vary depending on the age of the survivor. Thus, the average survivor's benefit paid in any year depends greatly on the mix of recipients. Since the mid-1970s, the average monthly CPP survivor's benefit has fluctuated between $209 and $243, while the average monthly QPP survivor's benefit has declined from about $400 to less than $320 (in 1994 dollars).

The total cost of CPP survivor's pensions reached $2.1 billion in 1994. This was up sharply from $609 million in 1980 and $134 million in 1971 (in 1994 dollars). Similarly, the total cost of QPP survivor's pensions grew to $941 million in 1994 from $357 million in 1980, and $50 million in 1971 (in 1994 dollars).

Death benefits available to the estate of a deceased contributor A lump-sum benefit is also available to the estate of a deceased contributor who has made contributions for at least the minimum qualifying period. These benefits account for only a very small proportion of total C/QPP program spending (1% of CPP and 2% of QPP in 1994).

This benefit consists of a payment equal to six times the monthly retirement pension entitlement of the deceased contributor up to an amount equalling 10% of the year's maximum pensionable earnings. The maximum death benefit in 1994 was $3,440.

The number of estates receiving a C/QPP death benefit grew to 10,280 in 1994 from 5,594 in 1980 and 2,578 in 1971. Over that period, the average CPP death benefit increased to $2,400 in 1994 from under $2,000 in the 1970s and early 1980s (in 1994 dollars). Similarly, the average QPP death benefit increased to $2,300 in 1994 from under $2,000 in the 1970s and early 1980s (in 1994 dollars). As a result, total spending on C/QPP death benefits has grown since the early 1970s, rising to $297 million in 1994, from $128 million in 1980 and $57 million in 1971 (in 1994 dollars).

C/QPP program maturity has led to rising incomes for seniors Since C/QPP was not introduced until 1966 and did not pay full benefits until 1976, few seniors were receiving C/QPP retirement benefits in 1971 and those who were, were only receiving partial benefits. Thus, C/QPP was not a significant source of income for either

men or women. In 1971, only 2% of the income of senior men and 1% of the income of senior women were from C/QPP benefits. By 1985, however, the proportion of men's income from C/QPP rose to 16% and the proportion of women's to 10%. By 1993, this proportion had increased again rising to 20% for men and 16% for women.

With the introduction of C/QPP also came an improvement in the incomes of seniors relative to younger people. In 1971, the median income of unattached individuals aged 65 and over, the majority of whom were women, was 55% of the median income of all Canadians.[6] Similarly, the median income of families headed by a senior was 51% of the median income of all families. By 1983, the same statistics were 74% and 60%, while by 1993 they were 81% and 68%.

Within the last decade, as the C/QPP program became available to more seniors and C/QPP benefit entitlements grew, the proportion of families headed by seniors who were living with incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs) dropped.[7] By 1993, 9% of families headed by seniors were living with low incomes, down from 19% in 1980. Among those living alone, the proportion with low incomes has fallen but is still very high. The proportion of unattached senior women with incomes below the LICOs fell to 56% in 1993 from 72% in 1980. The proportion of senior men in that situation fell to 38% in 1993 from 61% in 1980.

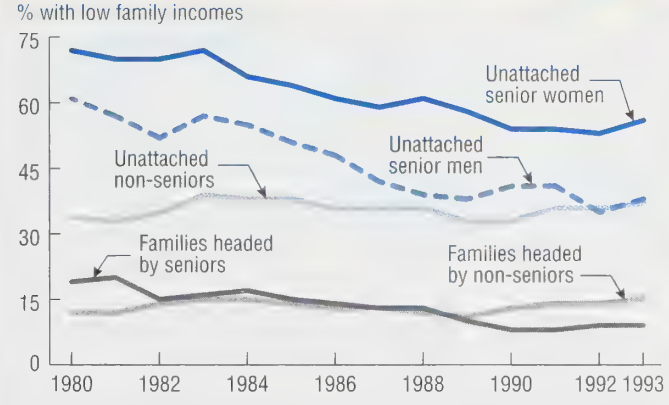
Today, almost all seniors who live in families (largely senior couples) and who receive C/QPP benefits have incomes above the LICOs (93% in 1993). Unattached seniors receiving C/QPP, however, are less likely to have incomes that high. Two-thirds of unattached senior men had incomes above the LICOs in 1993, while just over one-half (52%) of unattached senior women had incomes that high.

Senior women receive less C/QPP and are more likely to have low incomes Senior women who have not participated in the labour force have no C/QPP retirement benefits. Some may benefit from a spouse's retirement pension, but upon the death of a spouse, their pension falls because survivor's benefits are less than retirement benefits. Women who have participated in the labour force and who have a C/QPP retirement pension also tend to have lower retirement benefits than men.

[6] Median income is the level where half of the population has a higher income and half has a lower income.

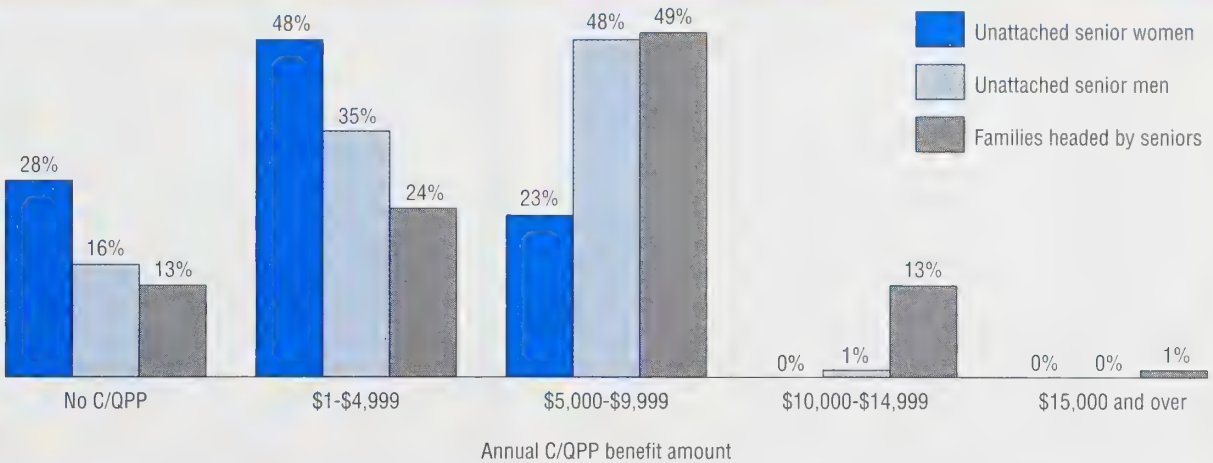
[7] These LICOs were determined from an analysis of 1992 family expenditure data. Families who, on average, spent 20% more of their total income than did the average family on food, shelter and clothing were considered to have low incomes. The LICO for an individual living alone in Canada's largest cities in 1993 was $16,482.

Incidence of low income falling among seniors[1]



[1] Incomes below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs, 1992 base.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207.

28% of unattached senior women did not receive C/QPP benefits in 1993



Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances, Public Use Microdata File, 1993 incomes.

This is because women's wages tend to be lower than men's and women are more likely than men to work part time. Rising labour force participation of women, provisions allowing C/QPP pension credits to be shared between spouses following divorce and the addition of the "childrearing drop-out" provision to C/QPP, however, will likely help senior women have a better retirement income in the future.

Unattached senior women are the most likely to have no or low C/QPP benefits. In 1993, 28% of all unattached senior women did not receive any benefits from C/QPP, compared with 16% of unattached senior men and 13% of families headed by seniors (largely senior couples). Similarly, almost one-half of unattached senior women (48%) received less than $5,000 in C/QPP benefits in 1993, compared with only 35% of unattached senior men, and 24% of families headed by seniors. Only 23% of unattached senior women received $5,000 and over in C/QPP benefits in 1993, compared with 49% of unattached senior men and 63% of families headed by seniors.

Average C/QPP benefit increases with family income As retirement benefits from C/QPP are related to participation in the paid labour force, these benefits are not universally received by seniors. Also, as benefit entitlements are not based on family income or assets, a large proportion of C/QPP benefits are extended to high income families.

Average C/QPP benefit payment and distribution of total C/QPP benefit payments, 1993 CST

Family income	Average annual benefit payment: Unattached seniors	Average annual benefit payment: Families with seniors	Distribution of total benefit payments
	$		%
$15,000 and under	3,480	2,980	12
$15,001-$20,000	5,845	4,158	10
$20,001-$30,000	6,231	6,684	23
$30,001-$40,000	6,941	7,882	17
$40,001-$50,000	6,557	8,577	12
$50,001-$60,000	6,749	8,495	8
$60,001 and over	5,287	8,617	17
Total	4,843	7,337	100

Source: Statistics Canada, Social and Economic Studies Division, Social Policy Simulation Database and Model.

In 1993, receipt of C/QPP benefits was less common among unattached seniors (65%), many of whom were women, than among seniors living in families (83%), most of whom were senior couples.[8] Over 80% of both unattached seniors and those in families who had incomes over $20,000, however, received C/QPP benefits.

The average amount of C/QPP benefits received by seniors in 1993 tended to increase with family income. In addition, among recipients with family incomes of over $20,000, average C/QPP benefits were higher for seniors living in families than for seniors living alone. Among seniors in families, the average amount of C/QPP increased from under $3,000 for those with family incomes under $15,000 to $8,600 for those with family incomes over $60,000. Among unattached seniors, on the other hand, the average amount of C/QPP benefits increased with income from $3,500 for those with incomes of $15,000 and under, to about $7,000 for those with incomes of $30,001 to $40,000. Those with incomes of $40,001 to $60,000 received an average of over $6,500.

Overall, one-quarter of the total amount of C/QPP benefits extended in 1993 went to families and unattached individuals with incomes exceeding $50,000. About 30% of benefits were extended to those with incomes of $30,001 to $50,000 and 45% to those with incomes of $30,000 and under.

Contributions to C/QPP are compulsory and contribution rates are rising The C/QPP is financed by compulsory contributions of employed and self-employed people aged 18 to 64 and interest earned on the investment of the plan's funds.[9] People aged 65 to 69 who are still in the labour force can continue contributing until age 70. People already receiving C/QPP disability or retirement benefits, and those with earnings below about 10% of the average industrial wage ($3,400 in 1994) do not contribute.

As of 1995, employees contributed 2.7% of their earnings in excess of the minimum ($3,400) up to a maximum contribution of $850. Any earnings in excess of maximum pensionable earnings ($34,900 in 1995) are not subject to contribution. Employers match employees' contributions. Self-employed people, on the other hand, contribute twice as much as employees, 5.4% of their earnings in 1995 up to a maximum of $1,700. The maximum annual earnings from which C/QPP contributions are made, and the minimum earnings amount, are increased annually with any changes to the average annual earnings of Canadian workers.

The proportion of earnings to be contributed to C/QPP is determined through legislation. From 1966 to 1986, the contribution rate remained constant at 1.8% for employees and 3.6% for

self-employed people. In January 1987, however, a schedule was established specifying a gradual increase in rates from 1987 to 2011. In 1992, these rates were revised and extended to 2016. For employees, contribution rates are now planned to increase to 3.3% by the year 2000 and to over 5% by 2016. For self-employed people, the rates will be double.

Demographic change affects C/QPP Like OAS, CPP and QPP are not fully funded pension programs. Fully funded pension plans are those in which fund reserves are large enough to cover the full cost of pension benefits during the lifetime of all retired plan members, and the cost of future benefits for plan members still in the labour force. In March 1994, the value of the CPP Investment Fund was just 2.6 times greater than the cost of CPP benefits paid that year.

Although private occupational pension plans are required by law to be fully funded, no such requirement exists for C/QPP. With fully funded plans, contributors have a contractual agreement that their benefits will be paid. These plans can only be affected by investment failure or bankruptcy of the fund sponsor. C/QPP, on the other hand, offers a statutory promise that benefits will be paid. That is, contributors, who are currently paying benefits received by their parents' generation, rely on the promise that the next generation will do likewise.

As a result, C/QPP, like OAS, is affected by population aging. A growing population of beneficiaries and a shrinking population of contributors will necessitate increases in the amount of contributions required to sustain the program. Thus, contribution rates have now been set to increase over time.

Since the introduction of C/QPP, the proportion of seniors eligible for C/QPP retirement benefits has grown. In 1993, over 70% of seniors reported receiving benefits. This proportion is expected to grow even higher, as the program matures and the population ages. Population projections from Statistics Canada indicate that the proportion of the population aged 65 and over is expected to increase from 12% in 1993 to between 22% and 25% in 2041, depending on population growth. Over the same period, the proportion of the population traditionally considered of working age (18 to 64) is expected to fall from 64% in 1993 to about 58% in 2041. The combined effect of both population aging and program maturity is resulting in rising costs.

Program costs projected to increase rapidly From 1971 to 1994, the total cost of payments to CPP recipients increased 29 times to over $15 billion (in 1994 dollars). Similarly, payments to QPP recipients increased 27 times to over $4 billion. Forecasts from HRDC indicate that total spending on CPP will reach $21.6 billion by the year 2000, a 43% increase from 1994.

Rising benefit costs have resulted in an emerging shortfall between revenue and expenditure. From the introduction of CPP in the mid-1960s until the early 1980s, contributions to CPP and interest earned on the investment of the plan's funds have exceeded expenditure on benefits and administration of the program by an increasing amount each year. Thus, the size of the CPP Investment Fund grew. During the 1980s and early 1990s, however, the excess of revenues over expenditures began to decline. By 1993-94, for the first time, revenue from contributions and interest on the investment of the plan's funds was less than the cost of CPP benefits and administration. Thus, money accumulated in the investment fund was spent to support the program and the value of the fund diminished to $38 billion from $39 billion.

One implication of this shortfall is that contribution rates may be further revised upward to help counterbalance rising benefit expenditures. In addition, the federal government may experience increasing pressure to modify the program in order to reduce costs.

- For additional information on the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans, see **Inventory of Income Security Programs in Canada**, January 1993, Human Resources Development Canada Catalogue H75-16/1993E.

Jillian Oderkirk is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends.**

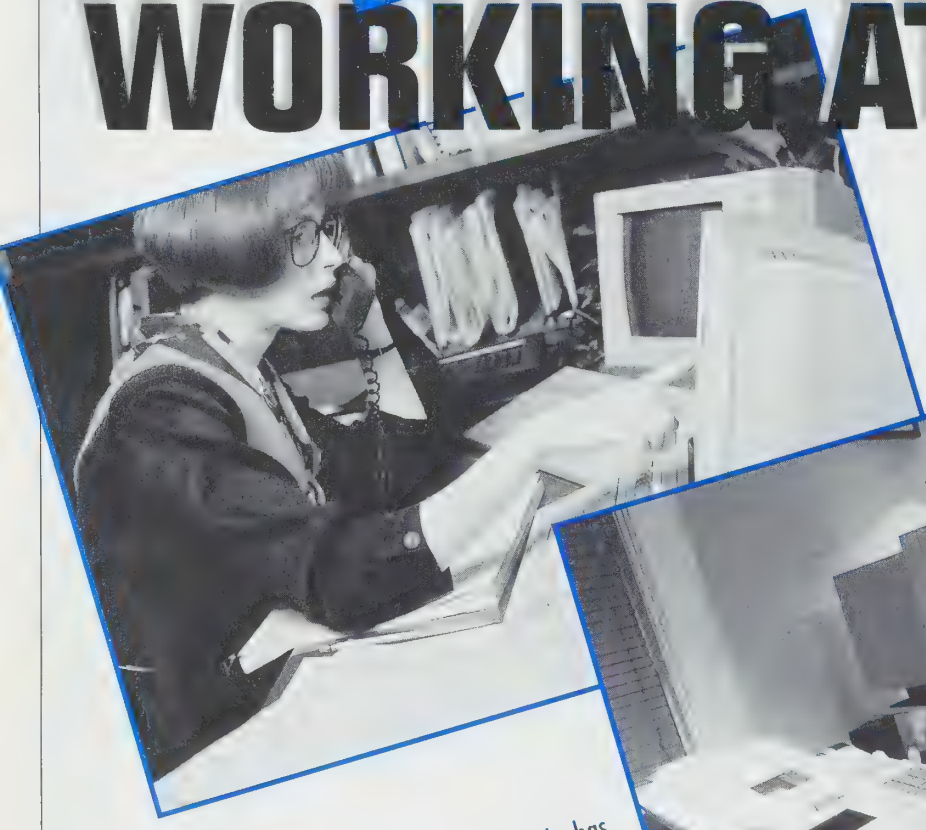
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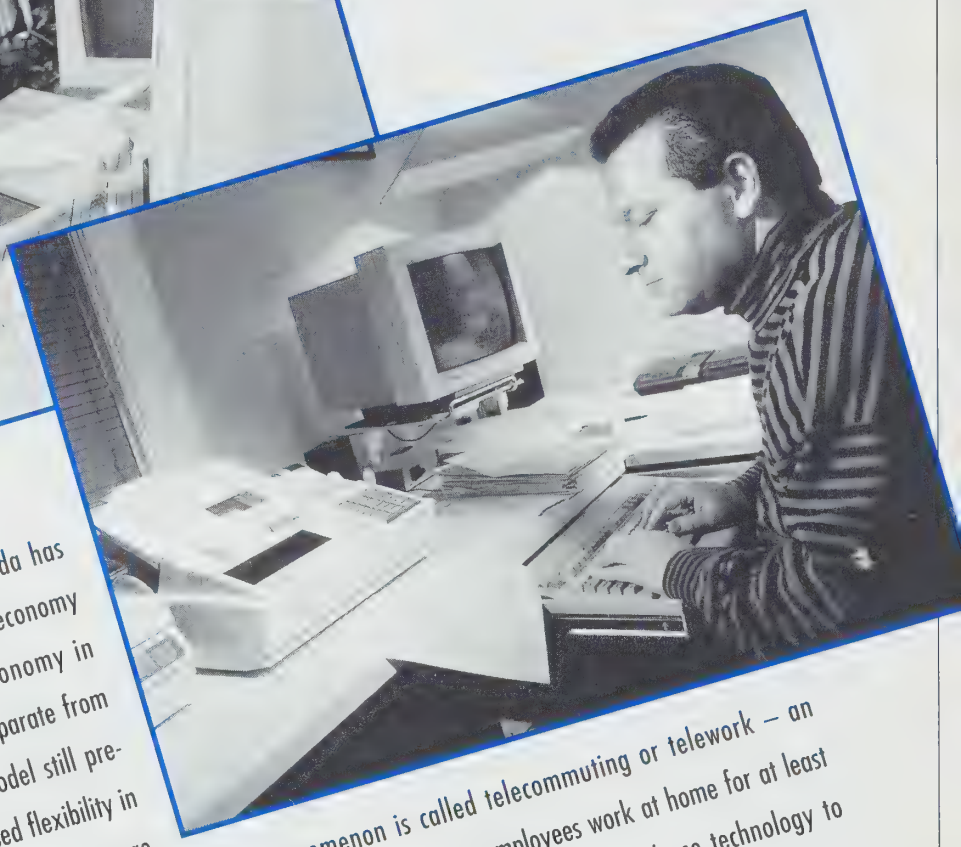
[8] Estimates for this section were generated using Statistics Canada's Social Policy Simulation Database and Model.

[9] CPP fund assets have largely been loaned to provincial governments, while QPP fund assets are managed by the Quebec Deposit and Investment Fund.

CANADIANS

WORKING AT HOME





by Richard Nadwodny

Like other developed countries, Canada has evolved from a home-based rural economy to a centralized urban-based economy in which the place of paid work is usually separate from the place of residence. Although this model still prevails, many workers are seeking increased flexibility in their work arrangements, and many employers are looking for ways to reduce overhead costs and maintain a contented labour force. Working at home is one way of meeting these requirements.

Partly as a result of technological advances, more and more Canadians are working at home. The increased availability and affordability of the personal computer and other telecommunication devices like modems and fax machines allow many typical office jobs (including managerial and clerical occupations) to be performed from home. This phenomenon is called telecommuting or telework – an arrangement whereby employees work at home for at least part of their scheduled workweek and use technology to remain connected to the workplace.[1]

For some, working at home is a lifestyle choice, made possible by programs available through their employers or through self-employment. For others, working at home is a condition of work. Self-employment at home can also be a last resort, made necessary by a scarcity of other forms of work. Therefore, some people work at home by choice, while others do so out of necessity.

1.1 million employed people worked at home in 1991 According to the census, over one million members of the employed labour force worked at home for pay in 1991.[2] In contrast to the situation earlier in the century, most people who worked at home that year (about three-quarters) had non-agricultural jobs. In addition, over the past decade, the proportion of people working at home in non-agricultural paid occupations doubled, rising to 6% in 1991 from 3% in 1981. Because of this rapid increase, the discussion of people working at home will include only those with non-agricultural jobs.

Slightly less than half of the 743,000 people working at home for pay in non-agricultural occupations in 1991 were women (47%). The number of women working at home, however, has increased more quickly than the number of men. Between 1981 and 1991, the number of women working at home increased 69%, compared with 23% for men.

Self-employment[3] is more common among people working at home than among those working outside of the home. One-third of people working at home in 1991 were self-employed, while the remainder were paid employees whose employers were located elsewhere. In contrast, only 4% of people working outside of the home were self-employed that year.

Paid employees working at home (27%) were more likely to work part time than were those who worked outside of the home (17%) in 1991. Female employees working at home were especially likely to work part time (40%), compared with other working women (26%). Among male employees, 16% of those working at home worked part time, compared with 9% of others.

Likelihood of working at home increases with age Among both paid employees and self-employed people, seniors are most likely to work at home.

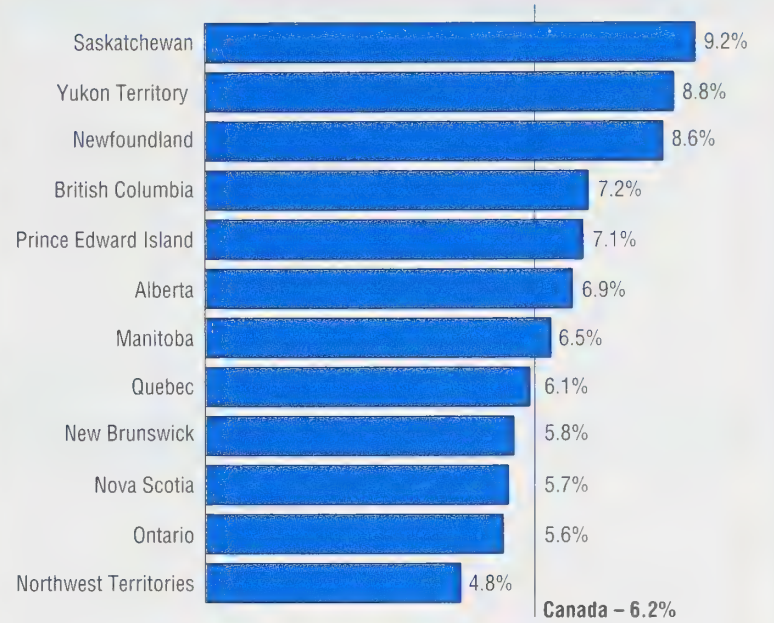
[1] See "Preparing for the Information Highway: Information Technology in Canadian Households," **Canadian Social Trends**, Autumn 1995.

[2] For information on unpaid work at home, see **As Time Goes By...Time Use of Canadians**, Statistics Canada Catalogue 89-544E.

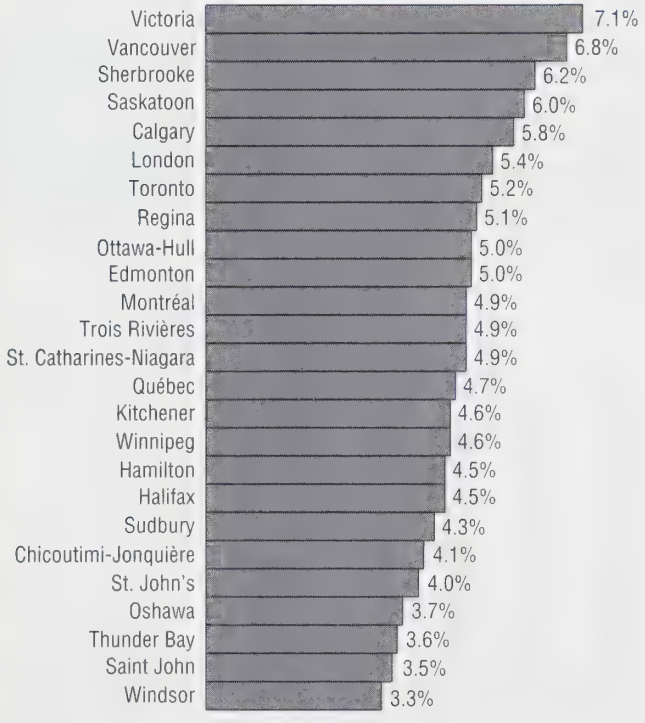
[3] See "Their Own Boss: The Self-Employed in Canada," **Canadian Social Trends**, Summer 1995.

Percentage of employed labour force[1] working at home in 1991

CST



Census metropolitan area:



[1] Excluding agriculture.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Survey of Work Arrangements

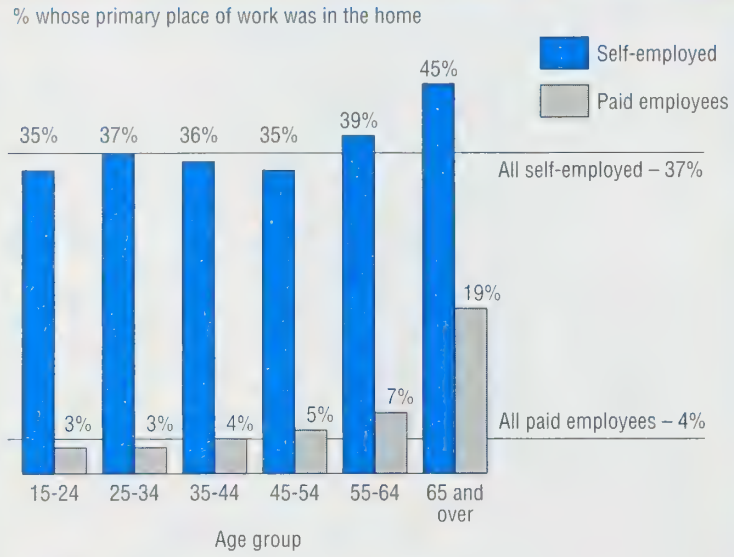
The 1991 Census counted both paid employees and self-employed people whose primary place of work was in the home. In contrast, Statistics Canada's 1991 Survey of Work Arrangements[1](SWA) covered only paid employees, and considered them to be working at home if they worked at least some of their regularly scheduled hours at home. According to the SWA, over 604,000 paid employees carried out job responsibilities at home during their regularly scheduled working hours.

Just over one-half (52%) of these employees reported that working at home was a requirement of the job, 17% said that home was their usual place of work, and 8% said that they worked at home because of family or personal responsibilities. Not surprisingly, women (12%) were twice as likely as men (6%) to have worked at home for personal or family-related reasons.

The SWA also provided other insights into the work-at-home phenomenon. For example, 70% of employees who worked at home had a regular daytime schedule, 20% had an irregular schedule, and 10% had some other form of shift work. The SWA also indicated that 360,000 paid employees held more than one job in 1991. Of these, 16% had a job that involved working at home for at least some of their regularly scheduled hours of work. In addition, over one-half of all people who were working at home (52%) indicated that their employer provided them with supplies or equipment – provisions that ranged in sophistication from office supplies to a computerized home workstation.

[1] For more information, see **Work Arrangements**, Statistics Canada Catalogue 71-535, No. 6.

Older workers most likely to work at home in 1991 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

Of all paid employees aged 65 and over in 1991, 19% worked at home. This was more than twice the proportion of those aged 55 to 64 (7%) and more than six times that of employees aged 15 to 34 (3%). Similarly, 45% of self-employed seniors worked at home in 1991, compared with those in younger age groups, ranging between 35% and 39%.

Working at home is most common among older workers for a variety of reasons. Mandatory retirement policies, for example, may encourage some seniors to find a work-at-home job or to start a home-based business. Older workers generally are more likely than younger people to have the knowledge and capital necessary to become self-employed. Working at home may appeal to some seniors because of the extra income and the flexibility that this work arrangement can provide. Some may choose to work at home to ease into retirement, while still contributing to their organization or company.

Occupations of people working inside and outside the home differ According to the 1991 Census, men who worked at home were most often in managerial and administrative occupations (22%), and in construction and sales occupations (15% each). Among men who worked outside of the home, only 15% worked in management and administration, 10% in construction and 9% in sales.

Among women who worked at home as well as those who worked outside the home, clerical, service, and managerial and administrative jobs were most common. Women working at home (29%), however, were less likely than those working outside the home (33%) to be in clerical positions, but more likely to have service jobs (25% compared with 15%). Similar proportions of women who worked at home (12%) and outside of the home (11%) were in managerial and administrative positions.

Less than a Grade 9 education more common among people working at home The educational profile of the work-at-home labour force is similar to that of people who work outside of the home with one exception. A relatively larger proportion of those who work at home have less than a Grade 9 education. In 1991, 10% of those working at

home had this level of education, compared with 6% of people who worked outside of the home. This group may include some people who work at home out of necessity rather than choice, as they would be less likely to qualify for other forms of work. On the other hand, many are older workers who entered the labour force when the educational requirements of many jobs were lower.

Among people who work at home, men are more likely than women to have low levels of educational attainment. In 1991, 12% of men who worked at home had less than a Grade 9 education, compared with 8% of women who worked at home. Among people who worked outside of the home, 7% of men and 5% of women had this level of education.

People working at home generally earn less Self-employed people working at home full or part time, as well as paid employees who worked at home full time, were less likely than their counterparts who worked outside of the home to earn $20,000 or more in 1990. For example, 29% of self-employed women who worked at home full time earned $20,000 or more, compared with 44% of those who worked outside the home.

Among paid employees working part time, however, those working at home were more likely to earn more than those who worked outside of the home. In 1990, 21% of men and 19% of women working at home part time for an employer earned $20,000 or more. In comparison, this was the case for 9% of men and 13% of women employees working part time outside the home.

Number of people working at home continues to grow Canadians working at home represent a diverse and growing group of people. Some people, many with managerial, administrative or professional jobs, choose to work at home to benefit from the flexibility and the reduction in work-related expenses that can result from this type of work arrangement. Others,

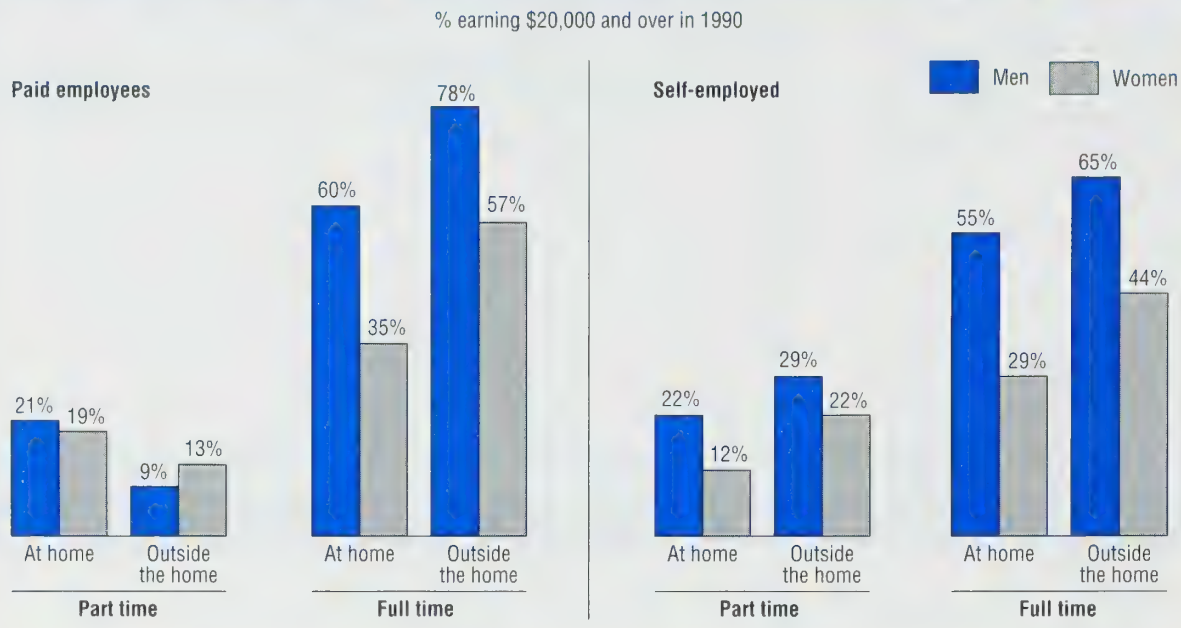
Most common occupations,[1] 1991

CST

Men			Women		
	Occupation	%		Occupation	%
Working at home					
	Managerial and administrative	22		Clerical	29
	Sales	15		Service	25
	Construction	15		Managerial and administrative	12
	Product fabricating/assembling/repairing	7		Sales	10
	Service	6		Artistic, literary, recreational	5
	Artistic, literary, recreational	6		Teaching	4
	Transport equipment operation	5		Product fabricating/assembling/repairing	4
	Natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	5		Medicine and health	2
	Clerical	4		Social sciences	2
	Other	15		Other	7
	Total – %	**100**		**Total – %**	**100**
	– Number	**411,950**		**– Number**	**385,610**
Working outside of home					
	Managerial and administrative	15		Clerical	33
	Service	11		Service	15
	Construction	10		Managerial and administrative	11
	Sales	9		Medicine and health	10
	Product fabricating/assembling/repairing	9		Sales	10
	Clerical	8		Teaching	7
	Natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	6		Social sciences	3
	Transport equipment operation	6		Product fabricating/assembling/repairing	3
	Processing	4		Natural sciences, engineering and mathematics	2
	Other	22		Other	6
	Total – %	**100**		**Total – %**	**100**
	– Number	**6,414,425**		**– Number**	**5,345,655**

[1] Occupational data include unpaid workers.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

Except among part-time employees, people working at home earn less than other workers



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Working at home and the underground economy

Some home-based occupations and businesses form part of the underground economy, that is, economic activity that takes place without the government's knowledge. Caregivers, renovators and construction workers, small business operators and contract workers likely account for a large part of the underground economy. By skimming – that is, by not declaring all business receipts or the full value of contract work – these workers are able to partially avoid taxation.

Statistics Canada has estimated that this unmeasured economic activity accounts for between 1% and 5% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP).[1] At 3% of GDP, the underground economy would have been valued at $21 billion in 1992, an amount that implies substantial unpaid federal, provincial and municipal taxes. As a result, the growing popularity of working at home is an important area of concern for governments that are faced with serious fiscal pressures. Ironically, the more difficult economic circumstances are, the more likely people are to work at home and in the underground economy.

[1] "Assessing the Size of the Underground Economy: The Statistics Canada Perspective," **Canadian Economic Observer**, May 1994, Statistics Canada Catalogue 11-010.

however, work at home because other forms of work are not available. As corporations and governments in Canada continue to downsize, and as information technology continues to redefine the concepts of work and workplace, both economic necessity and technological advances will likely contribute to increases in the number of Canadians joining the work-at-home labour force in the coming years. If the number of people working at home continues to grow as it has over the past two decades, home will be the principal place of work for over 1.5 million Canadians by the year 2001.

Richard Nadwodny is Head of the Place of Work Unit, Census Operations Division, Statistics Canada.

Distance Education

BEYOND CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

by Rachel Bernier



Since the 1970s, the education-by-correspondence concept has evolved into a new way of studying known as "distance education." Advances in technology have spawned a variety of new approaches to education, such as computer-assisted courses, audio-conferencing, video-conferencing and, increasingly, courses offered on the information highway.

Historically, people completed their education before beginning a lifelong career. Today, education and employment are often an ongoing process. Many employees must upgrade their education to adapt to the changing nature and demands of their jobs, while others who expect to change careers during their working life require new skills and training.

Distance education has become a growing alternative for many adults in these situations. This type of education allows people to initiate training without leaving their home or workplace, learn at their own pace and meet the obligations of their jobs. Although flexibility and accessibility are its two main advantages, distance education can also isolate learners. Many have expressed a need for more interaction – both with instructors and with other students.

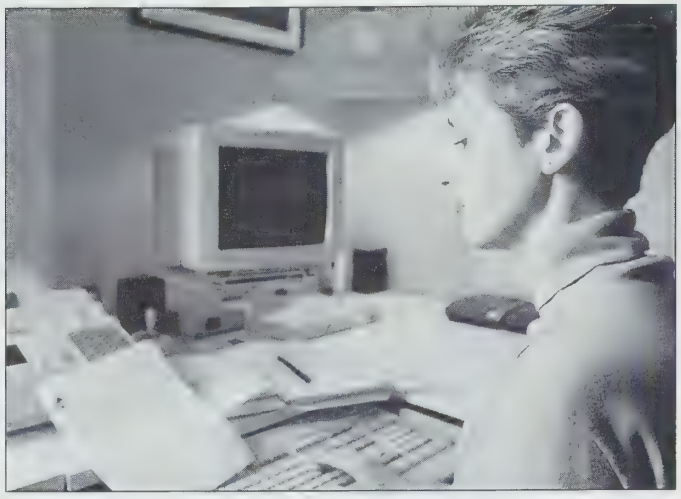
According to Statistics Canada's Adult Education and Training Survey (AETS)[1], over one-third (35%) of the adult population took courses or received training in 1993. Most (81%) were enrolled in courses part time. Of these adult part-time learners, 420,000 (7%) were studying through some form of distance education. In 1993, women accounted for 57% of distance education students and 53% of those enrolled in traditional programs, that is, attending classes at a school or training facility.

Although only a minority of adult students were pursuing distance education in 1993, enrolment has been growing. Between 1991 and 1993, enrolment in distance education increased 9%, while enrolment in traditional education grew 6%.

Commerce, management and business administration studies most common As with traditional adult learners, commerce, management studies and business administration were the most common fields of study among distance learners. About one-third (35%) of distance learners and 29% of traditional learners in 1993 were studying these subjects. Other common fields of study for distance learners were engineering and applied sciences (23%), and health sciences and technologies (16%).

Distance learners young and employed According to the AETS, 58% of distance learners in 1993 were aged 17 to 34. In contrast, only 43% of learners studying through traditional methods were in that age group. Similarly, only 2% of distance learners were aged 55 and over, compared with 10% of traditional learners.

Most adults who are pursuing additional education or training already have paid employment. In 1993, 78% of both distance and traditional learners were employed. Distance learners (40%), however, were more likely than traditional learners (33%) to be employed in clerical, sales and service occupations. As distance learners are younger than adults studying through traditional methods, it is not surprising that their incomes are lower. The average annual income of distance learners was about $27,000 in 1993, slightly less than the average for traditional learners ($30,000).

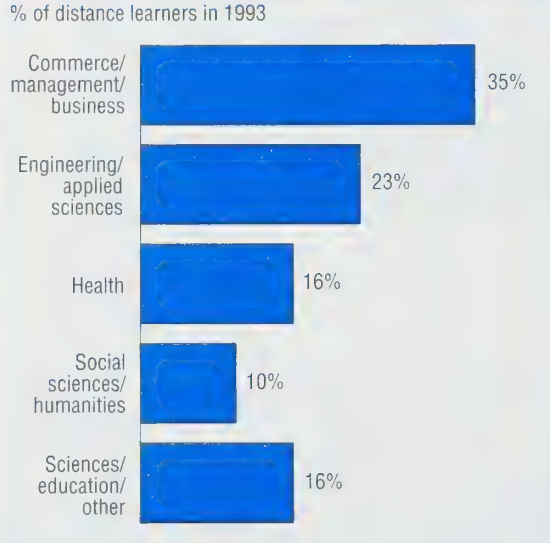


Distance education may be more common among younger employed people because it provides them with greater flexibility over the management of their time. Those with family responsibilities or irregular employment schedules, in particular, may benefit from this type of education. Similarly, distance education provides learners living in isolated areas with access to education. In 1993, adult learners in rural areas (10%) were more likely than those in urban areas (7%) to be enrolled in distance education.

Printed word still important, but other teaching methods also used Most distance learners (70%) in 1993 learned from written materials, although other methods were also used. More than one-third (37%) of distance learners were involved in seminars or workshops, and almost one-quarter (23%) used audio or video cassettes, tapes or compact disks. One-fifth used other teaching methods that included new telecommunications technologies such as video-conferencing or the Internet. One in ten had on-the-job training and 8% used educational software. A small proportion of distance learners (4%) received part of their instruction through radio or television broadcasts.

Non-interactive methods still most common Isolation from instructors and lack of interaction with other students are potential drawbacks of distance education, although interactive approaches to learning can help to avoid such problems. According to the AETS, non-interactive methods – radio or television broadcasts, audio or video cassettes and reading – were still the most common teaching methods in distance education. Interactive teaching methods such as classroom instruction, educational software, on-the-job training and video-conferencing were seldom used. Of all distance learners, 44% received training through

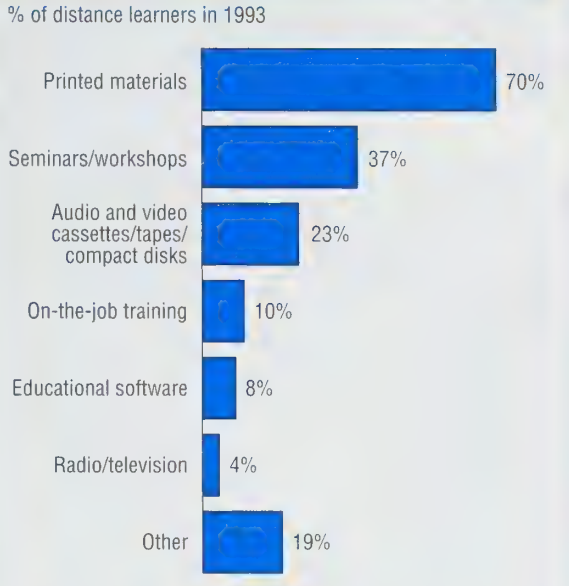
Enrolment in commerce, management and business most common CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Adult Education and Training Survey.

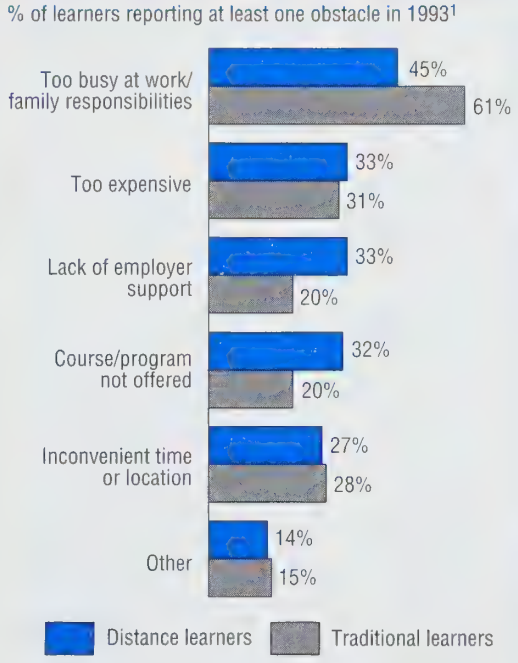
[1] The 1994 Adult Education and Training Survey covered all people aged 17 and over enrolled in short-term or part-time courses, apprenticeship programs or employer-sponsored full-time programs. Adults enrolled in regular full-time programs were not included.

Printed materials most common teaching method



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Adult Education and Training Survey.

Work and family responsibilities most common obstacles for adult learners



[1] Sixteen percent of all distance learners and 15% of all traditional learners reported at least one obstacle to training in 1993.
Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Adult Education and Training Survey.

non-interactive teaching methods only, 25% learned through interactive methods, and another 31% were trained using both methods.

Obstacles to distance education Although distance education offers greater flexibility than traditional training methods, distance learners can experience problems. According to the AETS, 16% of all distance learners and 15% of all traditional learners faced at least one obstacle to training. The problems reported most often by these learners included difficulty finding time and money to pursue studies, a lack of employer support, and the unavailability of particular courses.

Distance education in transition With on-going technological advances, distance education is in a period of transition. New technologies could reduce the problem of isolation by facilitating the development of more interactive teaching methods. Fully exploiting the communications potential of different media in the future will increase educators' ability to respond to the needs of individual students. For adult learners, it will mean being able to take courses or programs suited to their interests, abilities and schedules.

New technologies, however, do have limitations. New methods of distance education are not always simple enough for instructors and learners to use. In addition, quality educational materials are not necessarily available when a new technology is first introduced. Finally, any technology, no matter how effective and user-friendly, will only find its way into the homes and workplaces of learners if it is affordable.

Rachel Bernier was an analyst with Education, Culture and Tourism Division and is now with Household Surveys Division, Statistics Canada.

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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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Health Facts

from the 1994 National Population Health Survey



The health status of Canadians is about more than the presence or absence of disease. This is because individuals' health, both today and as they age, can be influenced by their lifestyle and environment, as well as their genetic make-up. Smoking, alcohol abuse, stress, poor diet and physical inactivity are all factors that have been associated with health problems.

Until now, only periodic information has been available on how lifestyles and experiences affect health over time. To fill this gap, the National Population Health Survey will ask the same respondents questions about their health status, use of health services and medications, and lifestyle every two years for up to two decades. Initial results from this survey indicate that Canadians feel they are healthy, but there is room to shape up.

by Wayne Millar and Marie P. Beaudet

Most adults say they are healthy The first cycle of the new survey was conducted in 1994. That year, 62% of the adult population rated their health as excellent or very good, while 11% reported fair or poor health. The proportion of people rating their health as excellent or very good ranged from 72% of those aged 15 to 24 to 36% of those aged 75 and over.

Education and income are related to health status. In 1994, 72% of people with a college or university education reported excellent or very good health, compared with 49% of those with less than a high school diploma. People with higher incomes tended to report better health than did people in lower income groups. In 1994, 77% of men and 74% of women in the highest household income group reported excellent or very good health, compared with 52% of men and 51% of women in the lowest income group.[1]

Over half of Canadian adults have at least one chronic condition Just over half (55%) of all adults reported at least one chronic health problem in 1994. The most common chronic conditions were allergies (20% of all adults), back problems (15%), arthritis and rheumatism (13%), and high blood pressure (9%). The prevalence of most conditions was higher among women than among men. Women were also more likely to report multiple chronic conditions.

Chronic pain is directly associated with chronic conditions. Overall, 17% of adults reported chronic pain or discomfort in 1994. Almost one-half of people with arthritis and rheumatism (47%) and 42% of those with non-arthritic back problems reported chronic pain. Many people with diabetes (43%) or heart disease (41%) also reported suffering chronic pain.

Young people most likely to suffer an injury Seventeen percent of the adult population experienced an injury severe enough to limit their daily activity during the twelve months before their interview. In 1994, 30% of people aged 15 to 19 reported at least one injury. By age 25, however, the figure was below 20%. This is consistent with young people's tendency to be more physically active. Sprains and strains were most common, accounting for 45% of all injuries.

One in five adults has a long-term activity limitation In 1994, 21% of the population aged 15 and over reported a limitation that restricted the kind or amount of activity that they could perform at home, at work, at school or during their leisure time. There was little difference between men and women in the prevalence of long-term activity limitation, although the likelihood of having a limitation rose with age. This ranged from 13% of those aged 15 to 19 to 39% of those aged 65 and over.

Disease was more often associated with activity limitation than was injury, especially at older ages. Among those aged 15 to 44 with an activity limitation, 37% reported that it was due to an injury. This was the case for only 22% of those aged 45 and over.

[1] Households in the highest income group included 1 or 2 person households with incomes of $60,000 and over, and 3 or more person households with incomes of $80,000 and over. The lowest income groups included 1 or 2 person households with an income under $15,000, 3 or 4 person households with under $20,000, and 5 or more person households with an income under $30,000.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

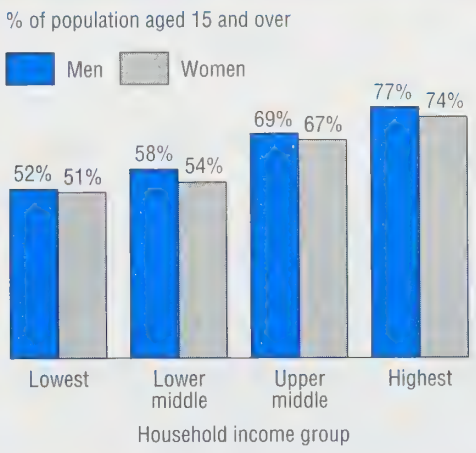
National Population Health Survey

The National Population Health Survey (NPHS) was designed to measure the health of Canadians and to expand knowledge of what makes people healthy. The survey will collect information from the same panel of individuals every two years for up to two decades. Initial survey data collection began in June 1994 and finished in June 1995. Residents in 26,400 households in all provinces (except people living on Indian Reserves or on Canadian Forces Bases) were interviewed.

This article was adapted from the **National Population Health Survey Overview, 1994-95**. Statistics Canada Catalogue 82-567. Watch for NPHS-based articles, focusing on various aspects of the health of Canadians, in the quarterly journal **Health Reports**, Statistics Canada Catalogue 82-003.

A public-use microdata file of the 1994-95 NPHS is available on diskette or CD-ROM. Requests for data products should be directed to the Information Requests Unit, Health Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6. Telephone (613) 951-1746 or FAX (613) 951-0792.

People in higher income households most likely to rate their health as excellent or very good

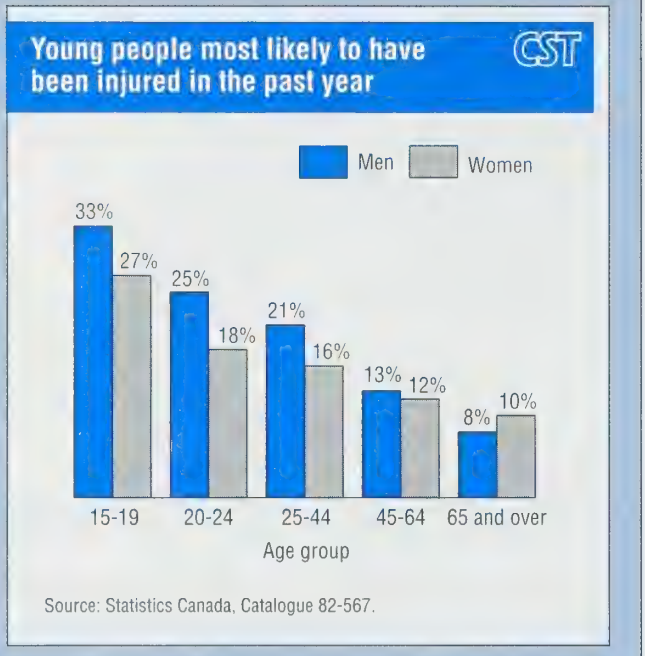


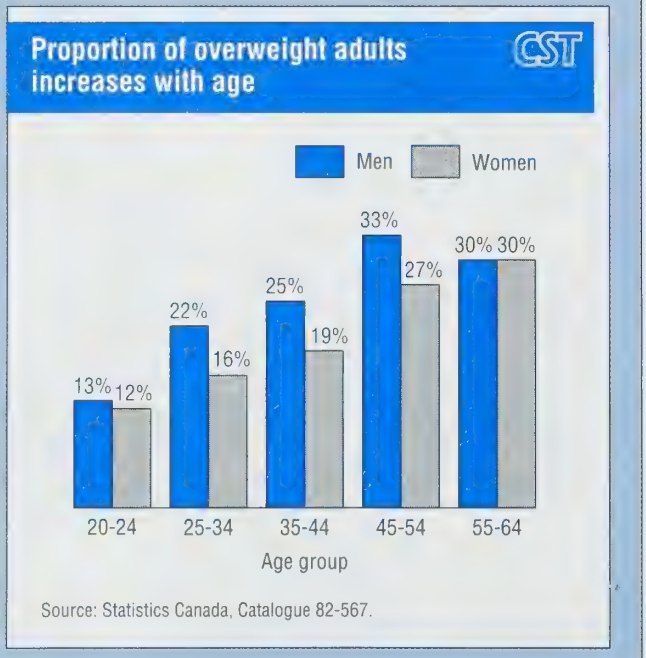
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-567.

Depression a common psychiatric disorder In 1994, 6% of the population reported having a major depressive episode (MDE) in the previous twelve months. Questions covering a number of symptoms for depressive disorder were used to determine whether a person would have been diagnosed as clinically depressed. The proportion of women reporting an MDE (8%) was twice that of men (4%). A high level of chronic stress was associated with depression. Overall, 13% of adults aged 18 and over with high stress, compared with 2% of those with low stress, reported an MDE.

Smoking and chronic stress related Three in ten people aged 15 and over were current smokers in 1994: 25% smoked daily and 5% smoked occasionally. Men (33%) were more likely than women (29%) to be smokers. Only among those aged 15 to 19 was smoking more prevalent among women (30%) than among men (28%).

Forty-six percent of men who experienced high levels of chronic stress were smokers in 1994, almost double the rate for men with low levels of chronic stress (27%). The relationship was similar among women, whose smoking rates ranged from 45% among those with high stress to 21% of those with very low stress.





Men more likely to drink In 1994, over half (58%) of adult Canadians reported that they were current drinkers, that is, they consumed alcoholic beverages at least once a month. Men (69%) were more likely than women (47%) to be current drinkers. For men, the prevalence of current drinking peaked at ages 25 to 29 (79%), and among women at ages 20 to 24, and 35 to 44 (54%). Rates were lower for those aged 65 and over – 52% of men and 31% of women.

Alcohol consumption and smoking are associated. The prevalence of smoking was higher among current (35%), occasional (30%) and former drinkers (27%) than among people who never drank (10%).

Men more likely to be overweight In 1994, about 23% of Canadians aged 20 to 64 were overweight,[2] and another 23% had some excess weight. Men (25%) were more likely than women (20%) to be overweight, although for both sexes, the likelihood of being overweight increased with age.

In contrast, 9% of Canadians were underweight. Women, particularly young women, were the most likely to be underweight. One in four women aged 20 to 24 (25%) was underweight in 1994, compared with 9% of men that age.

Physically inactive during leisure time Approximately 17% of Canadians aged 15 and over reported that they were physically active during their leisure time. Men (20%) were more likely than women (15%) to be physically active. For both sexes, physically active leisure was most common at ages 15 to 19.

While most Canadians (56%) were inactive during their leisure time, women (61%) were more likely than men (51%) to spend their leisure time in sedentary pursuits. As well, inactive leisure became more common with advancing age.

Most consult physicians and dentists In 1994, 77% of Canadian adults reported that they had consulted a physician in the previous year, and 55% had visited a dentist. As well, 35% had been to an eye specialist, and 27% to other types of health specialists. Income had little effect on the likelihood of visiting a physician, but visits to the dentist rose with household income.

Women were considerably more likely than men to consult a physician: 83% compared with 72% of men. In contrast, differences between the proportions of men and women who had contacted dentists, physiotherapists, psychologists and occupational therapists were relatively small.

Since the prevalence of chronic conditions increases with age, it is not surprising that the frequency of consulting physicians is greatest at older ages. For example, 89% of people aged 75 and

[2] Standard acceptable weights are calculated using the Body Mass Index. Weight in kilograms is divided by the square of height in metres. A value less than 20 indicates that the respondent was underweight; between 20 and 24 indicates an acceptable weight; between 25 and 27, some excess weight; and 28 and over, overweight.



over consulted a physician at least once in the previous year, compared with 72% of those aged 15 to 19.

Use of the services of health-care professionals varied by province. Rates of physician consultation ranged from 82% in Prince Edward Island to 70% in Quebec. The proportion of the population who visited a dentist varied from 62% in Ontario to 35% in Newfoundland.

People with chronic conditions see physicians more often People with one or more chronic conditions reported an average of six consultations with a physician in the previous year, compared with three for those with no chronic health problems. As well, the average number of consultations increased with the number of chronic conditions.

Overall, 13% of the population visited a physician 10 or more times in the previous year. This differed by province, however, ranging from 18% in Nova Scotia to 9% in Quebec.

In 1994, only a small minority (4%) of the population aged 15 and over reported that there was a time during the past year when they had needed health care or advice, but did not receive it. This proportion did not vary significantly by age, sex, income or educational attainment.

More than three-quarters of adult Canadians took some kind of medication In 1994, 77% of the population aged 15 and over reported using at least one prescription or over-the-counter drug in the past month: 83% of women and 71% of men. Pain relievers, which include aspirin and other analgesics were the most commonly used medications (62%). Other widely used medications included cough or cold (15%) and allergy (10%) remedies.

Women reported using more medications (1.9 on average in the previous month) than did men (1.3). Even after birth control or menopausal hormones were excluded, the average number of medications reported by women in the previous month was 1.7.

Overall, 21% of women aged 15 to 39 reported using birth control pills in the month before the survey. The highest rate of use was among women aged 20 to 24 (38%), followed by those aged 25 to 29 (26%) and 15 to 19 (24%). Among women aged 30 to 34, the proportion using birth control pills was 18%, and at ages 35 to 39, just 8%.

Around 15% of women aged 45 and over reported using menopausal hormones. The rate was highest at 31% for women aged 50 to 54.

Chiropractic services most common alternative health care Alternative medicine refers to a range of services offered outside the conventional medical-care system. In 1994, 15% of adults reported using some form of alternative medicine in the past year. Fully 11% of the population had consulted a chiropractor, 2% reported using homeopathy, and 2% received massage therapy. Approximately 12% of the population had used both a doctor and an alternative medicine practitioner. Only about 2% of adults used some form of alternative medicine exclusively. Generally, the use of alternative medicine was more common among women (16%) than among men (13%).

Not surprisingly, the use of alternative medicine varies with the presence of chronic disease. Just 10% of people without a chronic condition used alternative medicine, compared with 16% of those with one condition, 19% with two and 23% with three or more. Conditions with a relatively high association with alternative medicine use included back problems (34%), food allergies (25%), urinary incontinence (20%), and stomach or intestinal ulcers (17%).

• For additional information, see **National Population Health Survey Overview, 1994-95**, Statistics Canada Catalogue 82-567.

Wayne Millar and **Marie P. Beaudet** are senior analysts with the Health Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

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EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

*Suggestions for using **Canadian Social Trends** in the classroom*

Lesson plan for **"Government Sponsored Income Security Programs for Seniors: An Overview, Old Age Security, and Canada and Quebec Pension Plans"**

Objectives

- ❑ To improve the students' knowledge of income security programs available to seniors.
- ❑ To appreciate some of the financial challenges facing Canada's seniors.
- ❑ To demonstrate to students how financial decisions made while they are young will impact on their lives after retirement.
- ❑ To teach skills in selecting and interpreting relevant information from a text.

Method

1. Develop profiles of seniors with details of different financial and lifestyle characteristics. For example:
   - a retired couple who both have private retirement pensions and investments, and have a total family income of $87,000;
   - a never-married woman who is retired from a job without a private pension plan;
   - a single retired man with a private pension of $27,000; and
   - a widowed woman who never held a job outside the home and who receives survivor benefits of $20,000 from her husband's pension plan.
2. Assign a group of students to a senior profile. Have each group read the three articles and prepare a fact sheet summarizing the potential benefits which could apply to their senior. From this summary, the students can calculate their senior's income from government sources.
3. Have the students prepare an annual budget for their senior. Include estimates for various household budget categories such as food, housing, transportation, clothing, entertainment, etc. The teacher hands out a list of the average costs of various items.
4. Using their calculations of the potential income of their example, each group should be able to discuss with the class some of the financial decisions their senior faces.
5. As a class, summarize the benefits and restrictions of the Old Age Security program and the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans.

Using other resources

- ❑ Use **Family Expenditure in Canada, 1992,** Statistics Canada Catalogue 62-555, for information on average budgets for different types of households.
- ❑ For more information on retirement income read the special retirement savings issue of **Perspectives on Labour and Income**, Winter 1995, Statistics Canada Catalogue 75-001E.



Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using **CST** that you would like to share with other teachers? Send your ideas or comments to Harris Popplewell, Social Science Teacher at J.S. Woodsworth Secondary School, c/o Joel Yan, University Liaison Program, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. FAX (613)951-4513. Internet: yanjoel@statcan.ca.



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1996 CENSUS
COUNT YOURSELF IN!

May 14, 1996 is Census Day and continues a long-standing tradition of record keeping in this country. The Census of Canada provides an invaluable historical record of the social and economic life of Canadians. The first census in what is now Canada was undertaken by Jean Talon, the Intendant of New France, in 1666. Censuses were conducted sporadically until 1851, when an act was passed requiring that a census be taken every ten years. This requirement was also included in the British North America Act *of 1867. Statistics Canada has conducted censuses at five-year intervals since 1956 at the national level, and since 1906 in the Prairie provinces.*



Shortly before Census Day, more than 11 million households will receive a Census of Population questionnaire.[1] Not everyone fills in the same census form: four out of five households complete a short form of seven questions, while every fifth household completes a longer census form of fifty-five questions. An adult in each household fills in the census form and mails it back to Statistics Canada. For the 2% of the population living in remote areas, a census representative completes the questionnaire during a household interview. Every census form is kept confidential and is protected by law. Only Statistics Canada employees who have taken an oath of secrecy and who work directly with census data see the completed questionnaires.

A unique source of information about Canada and its people The Census of Population covers everyone. As a result, it is a reliable source of detailed population information for geographic areas as small as a city neighbourhood. Since the census collects information every five years using similar questions, census data can be used to monitor demographic changes that have occurred in Canada's population over time.

Census data are necessary for the administration of many federal legislative measures. For example, the *Electoral Boundaries Readjustment Act, Official Languages Act, Canada Health Act, Old Age Security Act* and the *War Veterans Allowance Act* all contain provisions that refer to or require census data. Further, each person counted in the census affects the distribution of annual transfer payments from the federal government to the provinces and territories. Provinces and territories, in turn, make grants to local and municipal governments based on population counts.

Census information is also an indispensable tool for decision making at many levels. Governments use census data to develop and evaluate policies and programs. Businesses use this information to research their markets and to prepare for changes in the economy. Labour groups use census data to negotiate contracts, academics study them to analyze trends and conduct in-depth research, and the media rely on them to report changes in Canadian society.

Data from the census are also integral to various other aspects of Statistics Canada's work. Census population figures, for example, form the benchmark for population estimates for the years between censuses. Using census data, Statistics Canada is able to design sample surveys that collect other information, and to weight the results of sample surveys to ensure they are representative of various segments of the population. The Labour Force Survey, the National Population Health Survey and the General Social Survey are just three examples of many such sample surveys.

The 1996 Census involves an eight-year cycle that includes the planning and carrying out of the census itself, and the subsequent processing, analysis and dissemination of the data. The projected total cost for the 1996 Census is $347.4 million, compared with $303 million for the 1991 Census. After adjusting for inflation and population growth, however, the 1996 Census will cost $30.75 per household, only slightly more than the per household cost of the 1991 Census ($30.32 per household). This cost must be weighed against that of providing information through alternate sources or of making decisions and implementing programs with outdated information. Since population estimates are used to determine federal transfer payments to the provinces and territories, small errors in the estimates could lead to the misallocation of billions of dollars.

[1] Those who have not received a questionnaire by May 14th, who have questions about the census or who would like assistance in completing the census form should call the Census Help Line at 1-800-670-3388.

Contents of the 1996 Census of Population long form questionnaire

Basic population information

❑ **Question 1** asks for the names of each person in the household so that no one is left out or counted twice. Names are not put on the census database.

❑ **Questions 2 to 6** ask about the people in each household (relationship to person one, date of birth, sex, marital status and common-law status). This provides data about family size, the number of children living with one parent, and the number of people who live alone, and is used for planning certain programs, such as Old Age Security and the Child Tax Benefit. It is also used by towns and cities to plan day-care centres, schools and senior citizens' homes.

Activitiy limitations

❑ **Questions 7 and 8** provide information on the number of people in Canada reporting mental or physical disabilities, as well as those individuals with chronic health problems that limit activity. The results may be used to help Statistics Canada design surveys to find out more about the barriers people with disabilities face in their everyday lives.

Language

❑ **Questions 9 to 12** provide information on the language first learned at home in childhood, and on languages understood and spoken. The data are used to implement programs that protect the rights of Canadians under the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*. This information also helps to determine the need for language training and services in English or French.

Socio-cultural Information

❑ **Question 13** indicates the province or territory in Canada, or the foreign country, where people were born. This provides information about population movements within Canada and from other countries to Canada.

❑ **Question 14** records the citizenship status of Canada's population, which helps in electoral planning. When combined with age data, this information gives the number of potential voters. This question also provides information used to administer pension exchange programs between Canada and other countries.

❑ **Questions 15 and 16** are used to determine the number of immigrants and non-permanent residents in Canada, and the year people immigrated to Canada. Information from these questions is often used in combination with other census data to compare the socio-economic conditions of immigrants over time, to review immigration and employment policies and programs, as well as to plan education, health and other services.

❑ **Question 17** asks about the ethnic and cultural diversity of Canada's population, and provides data required under the *Multiculturalism Act* and *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*.

Results from this question, when combined with other census data, also help describe the characteristics of the ethnic or cultural groups living in Canada. This information is used extensively by ethnic or cultural associations, government agencies and researchers for a wide range of activities such as health promotion, communications and marketing.

❑ **Questions 18, 20 and 21** provide information about Aboriginal or First Nation peoples, which is used to administer legislation and employment programs under the *Indian Act* and the *Employment Equity Act*.

❑ **Question 19** facilitates the identification of visible minority populations in Canada. These data are required for programs under the *Employment Equity Act*, which promotes equal opportunity for everyone.

Mobility

❑ **Questions 22 and 23** record where people are moving to and from within Canada, and from outside the country. This information is used to help estimate the population between censuses at the national, provincial and subprovincial levels. It is also used to identify future needs for housing, education, transportation and social services, and contributes to programs administered under the *Fiscal Arrangements Act*.

Education

❑ **Questions 24 to 29** provide data on the education and training of people and their specific job skills. This information is used by governments and employers to evaluate whether there are enough people with adequate education, training and job skills in particular areas of the work force. This data aids in the development of training programs to meet the changing needs of the labour market.

Information on school attendance is needed for planning and financing postsecondary and adult education programs, under the *Canada Student Loans Act*. It is also used to develop incentives and programs that help people remain in school or return to school.

Household activities

❑ **Question 30** provides information on unpaid household work. Specifically, the question collects data on how much time people aged 15 and over spend on household tasks, and on providing care and assistance to children and seniors. This information is relevant to a number of labour market and social policy issues, and responds to the concerns of several women's organizations.

Labour market activities

❑ **Questions 31 to 46** collect information on paid work done by people aged 15 and over. This information is important for both businesses and governments at all levels to plan for education and training programs, to forecast future job opportunities, to plan efficient transportation and commuting systems, and to develop measures to support job creation by employers in communities throughout the country.

Income

❑ **Question 47** asks about income from employment, self-employment, and from government and other sources. The census is the only source of detailed income statistics for all people in Canada, their families and households. While income tax records are another source of income information, they do not provide the depth of information on the characteristics of people that can be obtained from the census.

Governments use census income data to develop income support programs and social services, such as Old Age Security Pension, provincial income supplements, social assistance and welfare payments. They also use census income data to ensure that programs which supplement family incomes do so efficiently and to identify specific geographic areas in need of assistance. Businesses, large and small, use these data to market their products, to locate stores near consumers, and to develop new products and services.

Housing

❑ **Questions on housing (H1 to H8)** provide information used by private developers and federal, provincial and municipal planners to develop and assess housing projects. Results are used by many programs administered under the *National Housing Act* and the *Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation Act*. These programs include mortgage loan insurance, first home loan insurance, land management, and housing for Aboriginal people, victims of family violence and people with disabilities.

Information on the number of rooms and bedrooms in homes, combined with the number of people in households and shelter costs, is used to assess the economic situation of Canadian families. In particular, it allows provincial and municipal governments to measure the level of crowding in households, which in turn affects the quality of life of residents. Programs can then be developed to meet changing housing and shelter needs.

Information on period of construction and need for repairs is used by the housing industry to evaluate the age and physical condition of Canada's housing. Municipal neighbourhood improvement programs can then be put in place where they are needed.

Confidentiality

❑ No one, including the courts or other government departments, can get personal income or other information from the census. All answers are kept confidential. This is the law.

Census of Agriculture

The Census of Agriculture is conducted on the same day as the Census of Population. Also taken every five years, the Census of Agriculture collects information on farm operators, and on topics such as crop areas, livestock, farm machinery, farm expenses and receipts, and land management practices. The 1996 Census of Agriculture will collect data on more than one-quarter of a million farms across Canada. For more information, contact Lynda Kemp at 1-800-465-1991 or write to Statistics Canada, Agriculture Division, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6.



What's new for the 1996 Census?

For the census to be useful, it must reflect changes in society and meet the specific needs of data users, while still maintaining coverage and minimizing the burden on respondents. Questions included on the census must be of national importance. A need for particular data must be identified, and the additional response burden justified. There must also be a need for the level of coverage of particular population segments or geographic areas that only a census can deliver.

Prior to the 1996 Census, Statistics Canada solicited the opinions of clients and interested parties across Canada, including all levels of government, business and labour, education, libraries,

Milestones in the history of the census

1666
- The first census is conducted in New France. The population is 3,215 (excluding Aboriginal peoples and royal troops).

1739
- The last census is conducted under the French regime.

1767
- The Census of Nova Scotia introduces variables related to religion and origin.

1817
- The Census of Nova Scotia introduces variables related to birth places of the people.

1831
- The Census of Assiniboia is conducted for the first time in what is now western Canada.

1851
- The decennial Canadian census is established under an act which requires a census to be taken in 1851, 1861 and every tenth year thereafter.

1870
- The first Census of British Columbia and Manitoba takes place.

1871
- The first census of the Dominion is taken. The questionnaire is available in English and French, a tradition continued in every subsequent census.
- Canada's population reaches 3.5 million.

1905
- The census bureau becomes a permanent government agency.

1906
- A quinquennial Prairie census is conducted in Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta.

1911
- The census date is changed from April to June to avoid bad weather and road conditions, and the difficulty of determining crop acreage in the early spring.

1918
- The Dominion Bureau of Statistics is created under the *Statistics Act*.

1941
- In an exceptional measure, the census is held on June 14th so as not to conflict with the first Victory Loan campaign period.
- The first sample survey is conducted, dealing with housing.
- Canada's population reaches 11.5 million.

1956
- The first national quinquennial census is conducted.

1971
- For the first time, the majority of respondents fill in their own census questionnaire (self-enumeration).
- The Dominion Bureau of Statistics becomes Statistics Canada.
- Under the new *Statistics Act*, it becomes a statutory requirement to hold Censuses of Population and Agriculture every five years.

1986
- The census contains a question on disability, which is also used to establish a sample of respondents for the first postcensal survey on activity limitation.

1991
- For the first time, a question on common-law relationships is included on the census questionnaire.
- The population reaches 27.3 million, up 8% from 1986.

1996
- Questions on unpaid household work, visible minorities and mode of transportation to work are included on the census questionnaire.

special interest groups and the general public. After extensive consultations and considerable testing, content options were presented to the federal cabinet for approval.

The 1996 Census short questionnaire, which goes to 80% of households, contains seven questions instead of nine as in 1991. The short census form asks for name, relationship to person one (usually the person filling out the census form), date of birth, sex, marital status, common-law status and the language first learned at home in childhood and still understood (commonly referred to as mother tongue). Two questions on housing have been dropped from the short form, but remain on the long questionnaire which goes to the remaining 20% of households.

The long questionnaire contains new questions dealing with population group (visible minorities), unpaid household activities, Aboriginal peoples, and mode of transportation to work. Questions relating to fertility and religion have not been included in the 1996 Census. These questions have traditionally been asked every ten years in the decennial census and a need for information on these subjects at five-year intervals had not been demonstrated.

Population group (visible minorities): Federal employment equity legislation requires information on four designated groups: women, Aboriginal peoples, people with disabilities and visible minorities. The census provides benchmark data on the designated groups which are used by employers to compare their work force with the population in their area. In the past, federal departments responsible for employment equity programs used census data on ethnic origin, place of birth and language to define Canada's visible minority population. The 1996 Census includes a more direct question that, testing has indicated, will provide improved data needed to administer the *Employment Equity Act.*

Unpaid household activities: The significance of unpaid work performed in the home has long been recognized. Since the late 1970s, Statistics Canada has been working on developing census questions on unpaid work that will yield meaningful results. In preparation for the 1996 Census, testing and development work was more extensive than ever before and an effective approach to measuring unpaid work was achieved. The new questions on unpaid household work, child care, and care and assistance to seniors will provide data relevant to a number of labour market and social policy issues.

Aboriginal peoples: The 1996 Census contains more detailed questions about the Aboriginal population compared to past censuses. In addition to asking about Treaty or Registered Indian status, the 1996 Census asks respondents whether they consider themselves to belong to an Aboriginal group. Also, there is a separate question on the Indian band or First Nation to which the person belongs.

Mode of transportation to work: The 1996 Census includes a question about the mode of transportation usually used to go to work. Data compiled from responses to this question will be relevant to public policy issues involving transportation and the environment.

Availability of 1996 Census data

The results of the 1996 Census will begin to appear about ten months after Census Day with the release of population and dwelling counts in the spring of 1997. The remaining variables, derived from the 20% of households that received the long census form, will be released starting in the fall of 1997 and continuing into 1998.

Census data are available in libraries across Canada and in the provincial and territorial bureaus of statistics. As well, census information and publications can be studied, copied or purchased at Statistics Canada's regional offices. Census data are available in electronic and printed form, including diskette, magnetic tape, CD-ROM and paper. Custom products and services are also available. In addition, Statistics Canada is exploring new ways to distribute information from the 1996 Census, including the Internet. Statistics Canada's Internet address is http://www.statcan.ca/.





50 YEARS OF THE LABOUR FORCE SURVEY, 1946-1995

	Population 15+ (14+ before 1966) 000s	Labour force (000s)			Participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Employment/ population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976[1]	17,124	10,530	9,776	754	61.5	7.2	57.1
1977	17,493	10,860	9,978	882	62.1	8.1	57.0
1978	17,839	11,265	10,320	945	63.1	8.4	57.9
1979	18,183	11,630	10,761	870	64.0	7.5	59.2
1980	18,550	11,983	11,082	900	64.6	7.5	59.7
1981	18,883	12,332	11,398	934	65.3	7.6	60.4
1982	19,177	12,398	11,035	1,363	64.7	11.0	57.5
1983	19,433	12,610	11,106	1,504	64.9	11.9	57.1
1984	19,681	12,853	11,402	1,450	65.3	11.3	57.9
1985	19,929	13,123	11,742	1,381	65.8	10.5	58.9
1986	20,182	13,378	12,095	1,283	66.3	9.6	59.9
1987	20,432	13,631	12,422	1,208	66.7	8.9	60.8
1988	20,690	13,900	12,819	1,082	67.2	7.8	62.0
1989	20,968	14,151	13,086	1,065	67.5	7.5	62.4
1990	21,277	14,329	13,165	1,164	67.3	8.1	61.9
1991	21,613	14,408	12,916	1,492	66.7	10.4	59.8
1992	21,986	14,482	12,842	1,640	65.9	11.3	58.4
1993	22,371	14,663	13,015	1,649	65.5	11.2	58.2
1994	22,171	14,832	13,292	1,541	65.3	10.4	58.5
1995	23,027	14,928	13,506	1,422	64.8	9.5	58.6

[1] Estimates for 1976 to 1994 were revised to reflect results of the 1991 Census of Population, including historical adjustments for census undercoverage and inclusion of non-permanent residents. Esimates prior to 1976 are not strictly comparable to the revised series.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	26,894.8	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0 PR	29,251.3 PR	29,606.1 PP
Annual growth (%)	1.3	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4 PR	1.1 PR	1.2 PP
Immigration[1]	152,413	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405 F	227,860 R	215,652 P
Emigration[1]	40,978	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993 F	44,807 PR	45,949 PP
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.5	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4 P	*	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	*	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	N/A	808 R	879 R	1,096 R	1,184 R	1,198 R	1,130 R	*
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	12,819 R	13,086 R	13,165 R	12,916 R	12,842 R	13,015 R	13,292 R	13,506
– goods sector (000s)	3,873 R	3,928 R	3,809 R	3,582 R	3,457 R	3,448 R	3,545 R	3,653
– service sector (000s)	8,946 R	9,158 R	9,356 R	9,334 R	9,385 R	9,567 R	9,746 R	9,852
Total unemployment (000s)	1,082 R	1,065 R	1,164 R	1,492 R	1,640 R	1,649 R	1,541 R	1,422
Unemployment rate (%)	7.8 R	7.5 R	8.1 R	10.4 R	11.3 R	11.2 R	10.4 R	9.5
Part-time employment (%)	15.2 R	15.0 R	15.3 R	16.3 R	16.7 R	17.2 R	17.0 R	16.6
Women's participation rate (%)	57.7 R	58.3 R	58.7 R	58.5 R	58.0 R	57.9 R	57.6 R	57.4
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	33.7	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	40,904 R	43,995 R	45,618 R	46,389 R	47,199 R	46,717 R	48,091	*
% of families with low income (1992 Base)	12.2 R	11.1 R	12.3 R	13.0 R	13.5 R	14.6 R	13.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.4 R	66.0 R	67.7 R	69.6	71.9 R	72.2 R	69.8	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.1	5,075.3 R	5,141.0	5,218.2 R	5,284.2 R	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,505.9 E
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	817.1 R	831.8 R	856.6 R	903.1 R	931.0 R	951.1 P	964.7 E	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,418 R	2,573 R	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356 R	3,539 P	3,647 E
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	5.5	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	39.5	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	*	*
– women	43.4	42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer – men	27.0	27.2	27.8	28.1	28.7	27.9	*	*
– women	26.4	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	*	*
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	*	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	865 R	908 R	970 R	1,056	1,077 R	1,072	1,037	*
– property	5,419 R	5,271 R	5,593 R	6,141	5,868 R	5,525	5,214	*
– homicide	2.1 R	2.4 R	2.4 R	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1993 $000,000)	179,817.8	187,892.3	196,762.4	205,481.1	211,778.7	211,432.6	*	*
– as a % of total expenditures	56.1	56.0	56.8	58.5	59.6	59.6	*	*
– as a % of GDP	24.7	25.2	26.9	29.5	30.2	29.7	*	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	*
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) – annual % change	+5.0	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.6	+2.2	+4.5	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1
Urban housing starts	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526

– Not available * Not yet available P Preliminary data E Estimate m Figures as of March IR Revised intercensal estimates
PD Final postcensal estimates PP Preliminary postcensal estimates PR Updated postcensal estimates R Revised data F Final data

[1]For year ending June 30.

[2]Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

Correction: In the Winter 1995 issue of CST, the 1994 figure for full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s) should have been 964.7[P].

Adult women's labour force participation rate at a standstill

For several decades, the proportion of adult women in the labour force had been continually increasing. This rate, however, has recently levelled off – and in some cases, it has gone down. The participation rate among women aged 25 to 54 was the same in 1994 as in 1990 – 76%. Women whose participation rate declined tended to be younger (aged 25 to 34), single, divorced or separated, lone parents, and with limited education. For example, the labour force participation rate of female lone parents with pre-school children decreased to 54% in 1994 from 57% in 1990. Among women with some high school but no diploma, the drop was from 65% to 61%.

Perspectives on Labour and Income, Autumn 1995,
Statistics Canada Catalogue 75-001E.

Break and enter incidents down

In 1994, police in Canada reported 1,326 incidents of breaking and entering per 100,000 population, a 6% drop from 1993, and the third straight year the rate of breaking and entering incidents had declined. Breaking and entering accounted for 15% of all Criminal Code incidents (excluding traffic violations) and 25% of all property crimes. Almost 60% of incidents took place in residences and another 28% occurred at businesses.

Juristat, Vol. 15, No. 13, September 1995,
Statistics Canada Catalogue 85-002.

No time for fun

Women were more likely than men to say they just did not have time for fun anymore – particularly if they were members of the baby boom generation and had children of their own. More than half of full-time employed mothers (53%) and more than one-third of boomer fathers (36%) said their lives were too busy to have fun.

As Time Goes By...Time Use of Canadians,
Statistics Canada Catalogue 89-544E.

Three in ten husband-wife families included at least one spouse aged 55 and over

Of all husband-wife families in 1993, one-third included at least one spouse aged 55 and over. Among census metropolitan areas, St. Catharines-Niagara and Victoria had the highest concentrations of senior husband-wife families (38% each), followed by Hamilton (34%). The lowest concentrations of husband-wife families with at least one senior member were in the Quebec part of Ottawa-Hull (23%), followed by Calgary (24%) and St. John's (25%).

Senior Families, 1993,
Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

Most university professors are boomers

In 1992-93, over one-half of faculty members were baby boomers aged 40 to 54, who had been hired between 1963 and 1976, and had taught at their current institution for 80% of their academic career. Most are not due to retire until after the year 2007.

Education Quarterly Review, Fall 1995,
Statistics Canada Catalogue 81-003.

Business or pleasure

In 1994, more Canadians were travelling for pleasure than for work-related reasons; vacationers outnumbered business travellers by 2.5 to 1. Canadians travelling for pleasure within Canada spent $5.4 billion in 1994, accounting for about one-third of the $15.9 billion in travel expenditures. Business travellers, despite their smaller numbers, spent almost as much as vacationers – $5.2 billion.

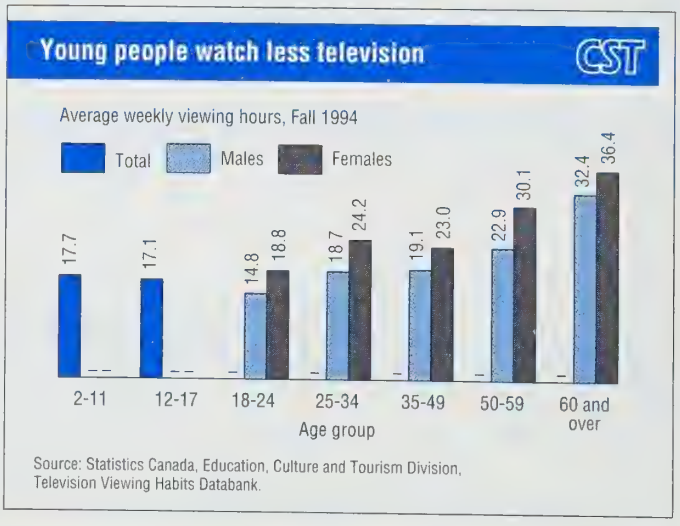
On average, business travellers spent $228 per trip (of 80 km or more in Canada), compared with an average of $96 for individuals travelling for pleasure. Based on overnight trips alone, the average expenditure for business travellers was $443.

Touriscope: Domestic Travel, 1994,
Statistics Canada Catalogue 87-504.

Canadians watching less television

Canadians, particularly those under age 25, are watching less television than they were five years ago. In 1994, Canadians watched an average 22.7 hours of television per week, a drop of about 30 minutes from 1990 and about 90 minutes over the past decade. Viewers under age 25 recorded the largest decline in television viewing between 1990 and 1994. Children aged 2 to 11 averaged 17.7 hours in 1994, down about 90 minutes from 1990.

Television Viewing Habits Databank,
Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Television Viewing Habits Databank.



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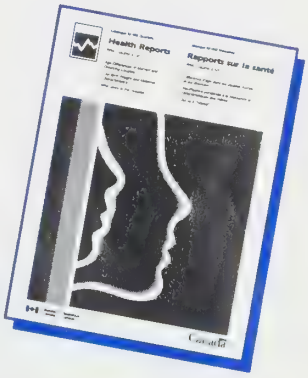
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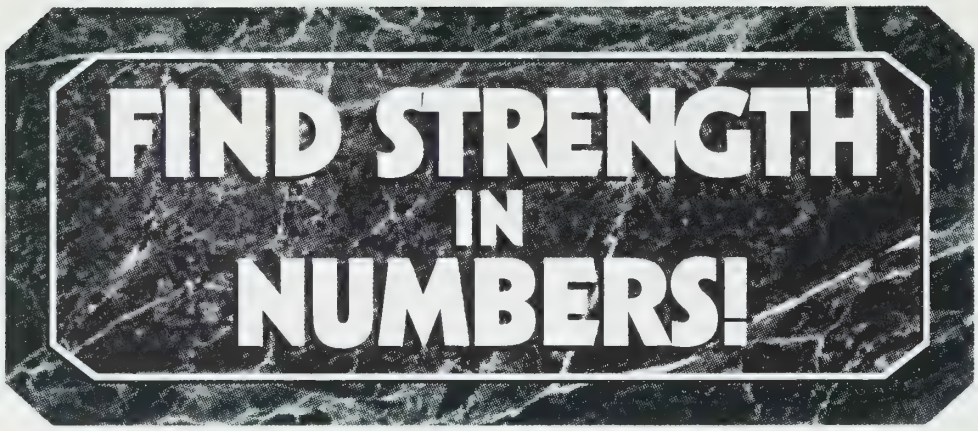
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ON OUR COVER:
At a Country Fair (c.1905) oil on wood, 15.5 x 12.8 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:
Born in Montreal, **James Wilson Morrice** (1865-1924) completed his legal studies in Toronto before departing for Europe to pursue his foremost interest in painting. His works were greatly influenced by artists such as Matisse, Monet and Gauguin. Much of his time was spent in Paris and Africa, although during his earlier years in Europe, he returned regularly to Canada for a few months at a time to reunite with family and friends. His works have been acquired by various collectors, including the National Gallery of Canada.

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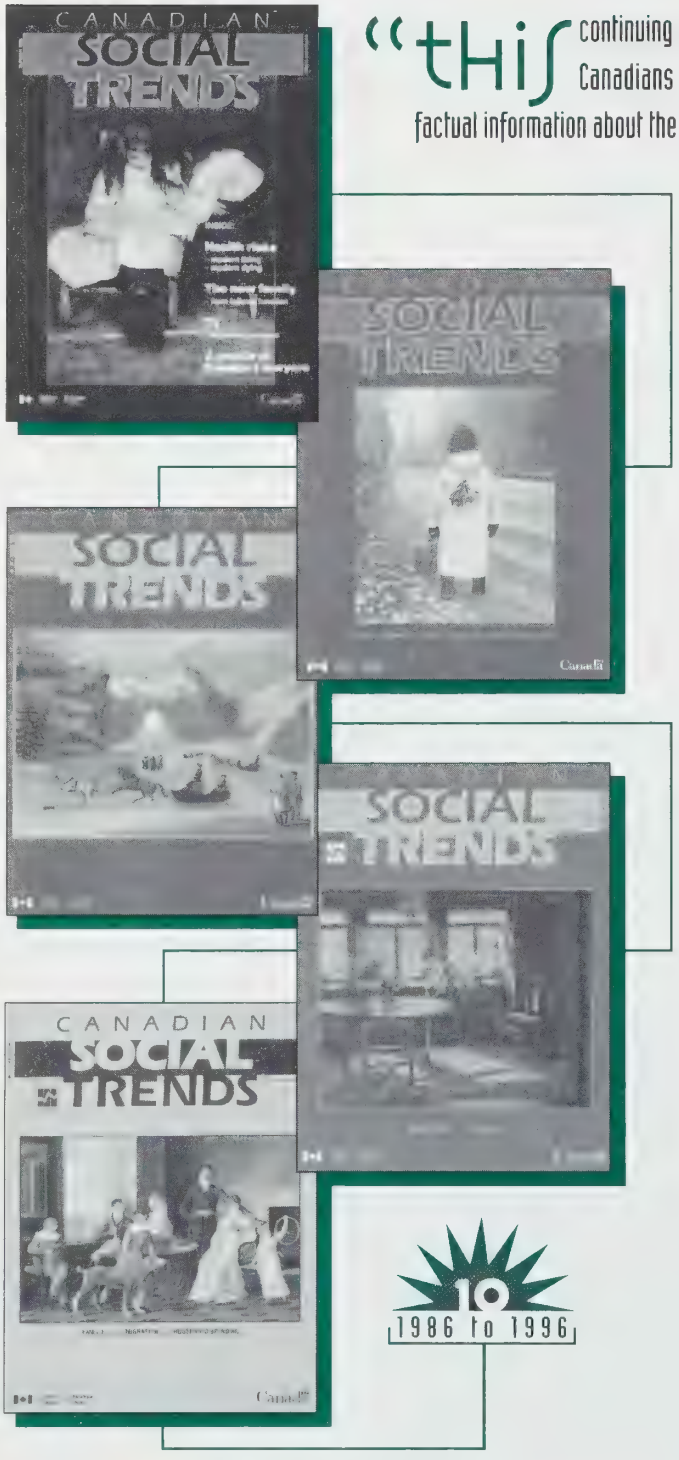
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CST celebrates its tenth ANNIVERSARY



"This continuing series is based on the recognition by Statistics Canada that a large number of Canadians – in business, labour, government, education, and the media – require factual information about the direction and scope of social change so characteristic of Canadian society."

This statement appeared in the editor's note introducing the first issue of **Canadian Social Trends** in the Summer of 1986. It rings as true today as it did a decade ago. Current readers of **CST** work in a wide variety of industries where there is a need to keep track of social changes – those that affect their organization, their clients and markets, or the people to whom they deliver their services. **CST** has also been embraced by educators. Its effectiveness as a teaching tool and resource in universities, colleges and secondary schools soon became evident. In fact, many articles first published in **CST** have reappeared (with copyright permission) in Canadian text books and readers.

The information provided by **Canadian Social Trends** and other Statistics Canada products not only reflects change, but precipitates policy discussion by making information widely accessible. Publishing statistical information on the social and economic condition of Canadians is part of Statistics Canada's mandate. Over the past ten years, **CST** has contributed to public policy discussions by helping the media bring objective information to the attention of millions of Canadians.

The success of **Canadian Social Trends** has inspired the creation of other analytic periodicals at Statistics Canada. The monthly **Canadian Economic Observer** arrived on the scene in 1988. Three new quarterlies appeared in 1989: **Perspectives on Labour and Income, Health Reports** and **Focus on Culture**. The **Education Quarterly Review**, inaugurated in 1994, is the latest addition. Although economic times are tougher today than they were in the late 1980s, Statistics Canada remains committed to fulfilling the need for information products in attractive formats that appeal to a broad public. This vision is reflected in the quality of these products, including the new look of the **Statistics Canada Daily**. You can read this digest of the day's data releases on the Internet at Statistics Canada's World Wide Web address – http://www.statcan.ca/.

Change has become a way of life for most Canadians. Over the past decade, technology in the information business and in society in general has changed at an unprecedented rate. In 1986, for example, only a few workers at **Canadian Social Trends** had a personal computer on their desk. **CST** was pasted-up using traditional manual layout methods. Today, virtually everything is done electronically. We're also picking up speed on the information highway by publishing on-line. You can see selected **Canadian Social Trends** articles, as well as our current Social Indicators, on the Internet, along with many of Statistics Canada's other information products.

While many Canadians listen to what Statistics Canada has to say, we continually need to listen to what you, our readers and subscribers, want and need. We are pleased to hear that **CST** is hitting the mark with so many readers, and we continue to welcome your comments and suggestions. Contact us by writing, faxing or by sending an e-mail (silvcyn@statcan.ca).

The past ten years have taken us through an information revolution. The next ten will take us into the next century. This issue of **CST** is the first installment in your guide to the changes we can expect as we enter a truly new age. – *Ed*

briefly...

Projections of Visible Minority Groups, 1991 to 2016

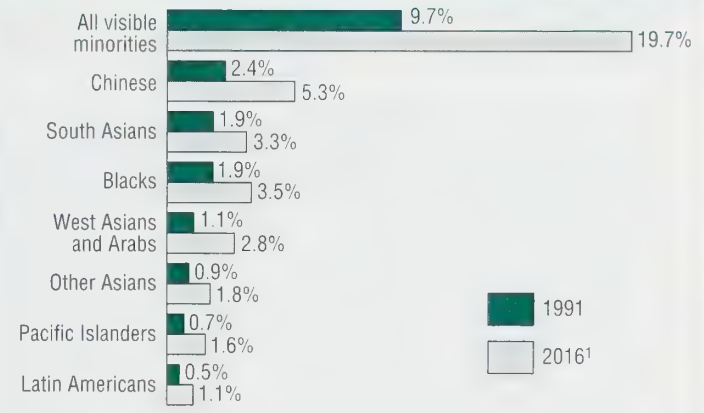
Visible minorities to account for one in five Canadians by 2016 The number of Canadians in visible minority groups is expected to increase to 7.1 million by 2016 from 2.7 million in 1991, according to Statistics Canada's projections based on a medium growth scenario. As a proportion of the overall population, this represents a doubling to 20% in 2016 from 10% in 1991.

Some groups expected to grow faster than others The largest visible minority group in 1991 was the Chinese (about 666,000 people), and this group will continue to be the largest over the projection period (nearly 2 million by 2016). The proportion of Canadians who are of Chinese ancestry will grow to 5% by 2016. Blacks were the third largest visible minority group in 1991 (540,000), but are expected to become the second largest group by 2016 (almost 1.3 million). South Asians will drop from second largest to the third largest group, moving from 543,000 in 1991 to a projected 1.2 million in 2016. West Asians and Arabs will continue to rank as the fourth largest visible minority over this period. However, this group is expected to increase at the fastest rate (217%) to approximately 1 million in 2016 from 315,000 in 1991.

Concentration in Ontario expected to rise In 1991, more than one-half of Canada's visible minority population (52%) lived in Ontario, followed by British Columbia (18%), Quebec (15%) and Alberta (9%). Projections based on high, medium and low growth scenarios all indicate an increase in Ontario's share of the visible minority population. According to the medium growth scenario, Ontario will be home to 56% of Canada's visible minority population by 2016. The proportions that live in British Columbia and in the Territories will remain the same, while the share will drop in other regions across Canada.

One in four children in visible minorities by 2016 Population growth rates among visible minorities vary by age group. By 2016, 25% of Canadian children under age 15 are expected to be members of the visible minority population, up from 12% in 1991. The proportion of the working-age population (aged 15 to 64) who are members of visible minority groups will double, to 20% from 10%. Although few seniors (4%) were in visible minorities in 1991, this proportion will rise to 13% by 2016.

By 2016, 20% of Canadians will be in a visible minority



[1] Projections based on medium growth scenario.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-541-XPE.

Visible minorities identified under the *Employment Equity Act* include Blacks, South Asians or Indo-Pakistanis, Chinese, Koreans, Japanese, South East Asians, Filipinos, Other Pacific Islanders, West Asians and Arabs, and Latin Americans. The 1991 estimates of the visible minority population – the starting point of the projections – were derived from census ethnic origin data, supplemented with other information on place of birth, mother tongue and religion. The population projections were based on a number of assumptions about trends in immigration, fertility, mortality and interprovincial migration.

For more information on projection techniques and estimates using high, medium and low growth scenarios, see **Projections of Visible Minority Population Groups, Canada, Provinces and Regions, 1991-2016**, (Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-541-XPE). Also available are **Projections of Population with Aboriginal Ancestry, Canada, Provinces/Regions and Territories, 1991-2016** (Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-539-XPE), and **Projections of Persons with Disabilities (Limited at Work/Perception), Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1993-2016**, (Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-538-XPE). These publications are available from your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre or call 1-800-267-6677.

15 Years of AIDS in Canada



AIDS virus cell

by Jeffrey Frank

Fifteen years ago, few Canadians had even heard of Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) or Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS). Indeed, the first documented AIDS case in Canada was not reported until 1982. HIV/AIDS today represent one of the most pressing health and social issues facing society. An estimated 16,000 people had been diagnosed with AIDS in Canada by the end of 1994, and over half of these people had already died from AIDS-related causes. It is further estimated that up to 45,000 people have been infected with HIV, the virus that causes AIDS. There is no vaccine or cure and the full impact of the disease has yet to be realized.

The XI International Conference on AIDS will take place in Vancouver, British Columbia from July 7 to 12, 1996. As many as 15,000 people from all over the world will meet to help find solutions for AIDS. The information shared will contribute to the development of effective prevention techniques and to progress towards finding a cure. With Canada hosting this year's international conference, it seemed an appropriate time to provide our readers with an update on the AIDS situation in Canada.

HIV is a blood-borne virus that is most often transmitted sexually, through needle sharing, or through blood products and transfusions. A person infected with HIV can carry the virus for a long time before developing any AIDS-related illnesses or symptoms. Studies suggest that about one-half of HIV carriers develop AIDS within ten to eleven years of infection. Thus, HIV disease is a preventable, chronic and progressive condition of which AIDS is the final stage. With the onset of AIDS, the body's capacity for combatting disease is diminished. People with AIDS become susceptible to various life-threatening infections and illnesses.

HIV and AIDS exact immense social and economic costs. Like other disabling conditions, HIV/AIDS threaten the independence and social well-being of people infected, as well as their families, friends and caregivers. In addition, a diagnosis of HIV is often accompanied by stigma and discrimination. Economically, the growing number of HIV-infected people will continue to bring increased pressure on Canada's health and social welfare systems. The annual cost to the health-care system of treating people living with AIDS has been estimated at over $200 million. Other costs, including those related to lost productivity, insurance settlements and social services, could be as high as $800,000 per person living with HIV.[1]

The annual number of AIDS diagnoses among adults continues to grow in all regions of the country and among all risk groups, with the exception of blood product recipients. In the overall population, the rates of AIDS cases and deaths due to the disease are still relatively small. For young adult males, however, rates are high, and the disease is among the leading causes of death. Evidence suggests



that the incidence of HIV in recent years has occurred among people who tend to be younger than those previously infected, and among people in a variety of risk groups. This has important implications for efforts directed at prevention.

Incidence of AIDS on the rise An estimated 16,000 AIDS cases had been diagnosed in Canada by the end of 1994.[2] One-third of these cases were diagnosed over a period of eleven years. Another third developed over the next three years, and the final third occurred during the last two years. Thus, the frequency of diagnosed AIDS cases has increased.

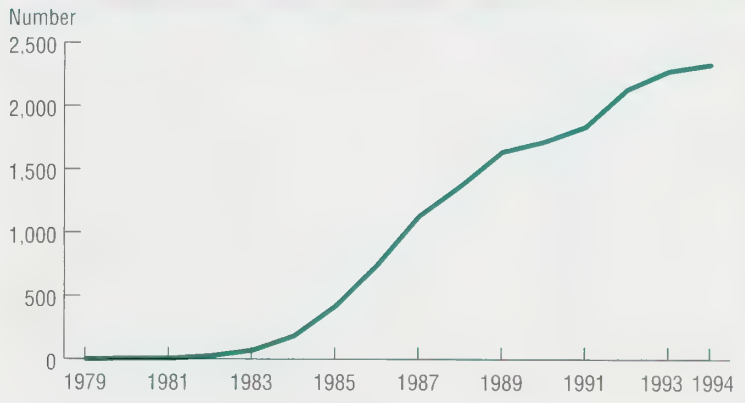
Canada recorded its first case of AIDS in 1982, but an examination of medical records indicated that the first case had actually been diagnosed in 1979. By the

[1] **National AIDS Strategy, Phase II – Building on Progress**, Health and Welfare Canada, 1993.

[2] Determining the actual incidence of AIDS is complicated by delays in the reporting of confirmed diagnoses, and by the fact that some cases go unreported. Nonetheless, the Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, the agency responsible for monitoring AIDS in Canada, has developed methods of adjusting for reporting delay and under-reporting.

Annual number of AIDS diagnoses[1] among adults in Canada has climbed steadily since 1979

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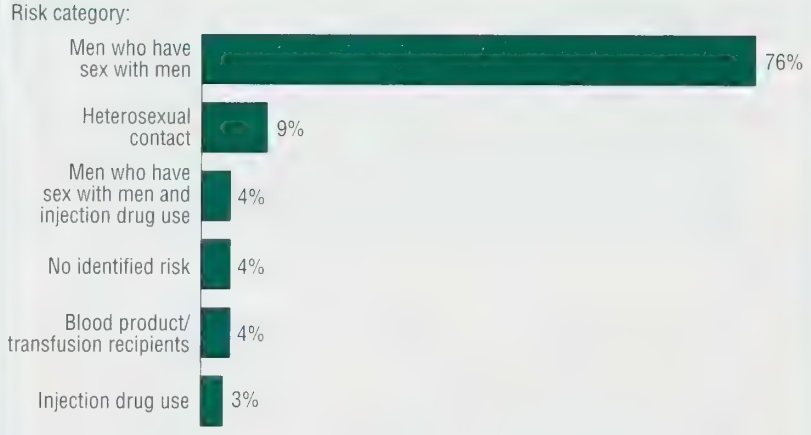


[1] Adjusted for reporting delay and under-reporting.
Source: Health Canada, Bureau of HIV/AIDS and STD, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, **1994 Annual Report of AIDS in Canada**.



Men who have sex with men account for three-quarters of all adult AIDS cases[1]

CST



[1] Cases reported as of September 30, 1995.
Source: Health Canada, Division of HIV/AIDS Epidemiology, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, **Quarterly Surveillance Update: AIDS in Canada**, October 1995.

end of 1984, 257 adult cases had been diagnosed. After adjusting for reporting delay, the annual incidence rate of diagnosed AIDS cases increased steadily from 1.8 cases for every 100,000 adults in 1985, to 9 cases per 100,000 in 1994.

In all years, the incidence of AIDS cases was much higher among men than it was among women. In 1994, the incidence rate among men was 18.4 cases per 100,000, compared with 1.2 cases for every 100,000 women. Among children under age 15, the rate was 0.4 cases for every 100,000 children in that age group in 1994, up from 0.2 cases in 1985.

Men who have sex with men still most at risk Risk factors for contracting AIDS include men having sex with men, heterosexual contact with a person at risk or with a person from a country where AIDS is endemic, injection drug use, receiving blood products or transfusions, and perinatal transmission. For men in Canada, having sex with other men is the most

significant risk factor. As of the fall of 1995, sex with other men accounted for four out of five AIDS cases (81%) ever diagnosed among adult males. Heterosexual contact with a person at risk is also an important factor, accounting for 38% of AIDS cases among women and 3% of those among men. Heterosexual activity with a person from a country where AIDS is endemic accounted for 26% of cases among women and 3% among men.

Fifteen percent of AIDS cases among women and 3% of those among men were contracted through injection drug use. Blood products or transfusions accounted for 14% of cases among women and 3% among men. Finally, expectant parents with HIV can transmit the virus to their unborn child. In fact, perinatal transmission accounted for about three-quarters (76%) of AIDS cases among children – the remainder having been infected through blood products or transfusions.

Importance of risk factors shifting The proportion of annual AIDS cases accounted for by exposure to various risk factors has shifted in recent years. Men who have sex with men still comprise the largest risk group, although the proportion of annual AIDS cases attributable to this risk factor has been decreasing since 1987. That year, eight out of ten AIDS cases (79%) involved men who had sex with men. By 1994, this group accounted for just under seven out of ten cases (69%). Similarly, the proportion of AIDS cases involving blood-product recipients was 2% in 1994, down from nearly 6% in 1988. Improvements in blood screening have substantially reduced the likelihood of infection through blood products or transfusions.

Injection drug use is a risk factor of increasing significance. In 1987, injection drug users made up only 1% of AIDS cases; by 1994, this proportion had increased to 6%. Women who contract the disease through heterosexual contact also make up a small but increasing proportion of AIDS cases. Between 1986 and 1990, the proportion of annual AIDS cases accounted for by women was 4.6%. This proportion averaged 5.6% from 1991 to 1994.

Men in their 30s most likely to be diagnosed with AIDS By the end of 1994, men who were aged 30 to 39 at the time

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

National AIDS Strategy

Launched by Health and Welfare Canada in June 1990, the National AIDS Strategy is Canada's blueprint for preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS. After widespread consultation, the initial phase of the strategy established the following goals: to stop the transmission of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus; to search for effective vaccines, drugs and therapies; and to treat, care for and support people inflicted with HIV/AIDS, their caregivers, families and friends. The National AIDS Strategy established the federal government's framework for action involving research; support to non-governmental organizations; education and prevention; care, treatment and support; and coordination and collaboration.

In March 1993, the federal government outlined the financial details of the second phase of the National AIDS Strategy. In total, $40.7 million annually or $203.5 million over five years was targeted. The annual resource allocation involves $17.8 million for research and epidemiological monitoring; $9.8 million for community development and support to national non-government organizations; $6.2 million for education and prevention initiatives, $5.4 million for care, treatment and support; and $1.5 million for coordination and collaboration.

HIV/AIDS prevention and community action programs Health Canada's HIV/AIDS Prevention and Community Action Programs (PCAP) exist to help stop the transmission of HIV. In consultation and collaboration with various partners, the Prevention Program provides leadership for the development of national prevention policies, strategies and initiatives for groups most vulnerable to HIV/AIDS. The Program addresses a number of areas including: collaborative prevention program strategies; prevention and behavioral research; information synthesis and knowledge development; experimental development programming; intergovernmental initiatives; and support of non-governmental partners, through core funding and project funding. For more information on the Prevention Program, see **National AIDS Strategy, Phase II, Projects Funded by the AIDS Education and Prevention Unit, Status Report as of September 15, 1995**, Health Canada, Population Health Directorate.

The AIDS Community Action Program (ACAP) provides operational and project-specific funding for community-based, non-governmental organizations. The Program is delivered through the national and regional offices of Health Canada. For more information on ACAP, see **AIDS Community Action Program Funding Guidelines**, which are available from the National AIDS Clearinghouse.

General requests for information should be directed to:

The National AIDS Clearinghouse
Canadian Public Health Association
400-1565 Carling Avenue,
Ottawa, Ontario, K1Z 8R1
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of diagnosis[3] accounted for 42% of all reported AIDS cases, and 45% of cases among men. Another 27% of male AIDS cases were among men aged 40 to 49, and 17% were among those aged 20 to 29 at the time of diagnosis. Females accounted for 6% of all reported cases. Among females, 38% involved women aged 30 to 39, 30% were 20 to 29, and 14% were aged 40 to 49 at the time they were diagnosed as having AIDS. Children under age 15 accounted for only 0.01% of all reported cases. These 115 cases were nearly evenly distributed between boys (54%) and girls (46%).

Younger people becoming HIV-positive The Laboratory Centre for Disease Control (LCDC) estimates HIV incidence using AIDS surveillance data, taking into account the delay between HIV infection and the onset of AIDS. Although the number of HIV infections has increased annually, LCDC calculations indicate that the incidence of HIV infection probably peaked in the early 1980s, mainly among men who had sex with men.

There also appears to have been a recent acceleration of HIV infections that started in 1990. What is different about this new resurgence in HIV infections is that it seems to have occurred not only among men who had sex with men, but also among injection drug users, heterosexuals, as well as some people with no identified risk. The annual incidence of HIV infection is growing more rapidly among these other risk groups and has yet to peak.

Prior to 1982, the estimated median age of people infected with HIV was 32 years. This declined to 27 years of age during the peak years of the early epidemic (1983 and 1984). During the period 1985 to 1990, however, the median age at HIV infection was 23 years. Thus, those who become HIV-infected today can be in any of several risk categories and tend to be considerably younger than those who were infected previously. This has obvious but important implications for the targeting of information and education programs, and for AIDS prevention measures generally.

Number of AIDS-related deaths approaching 10,000 By the end of 1995, 9,133 AIDS-related deaths had been

[3] A diagnosis of AIDS can follow many years after HIV infection. Therefore, these people were much younger when they became infected with HIV.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

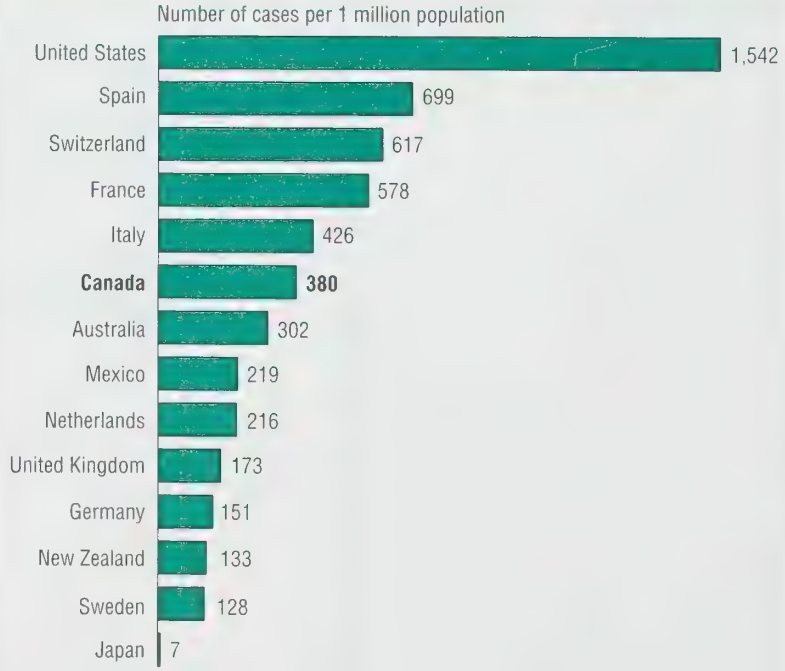
International context of HIV/AIDS

Allowing for under-diagnosis, incomplete reporting and reporting delay, and based on available data on HIV infections around the world, it is estimated that over 4.5 million AIDS cases have occurred worldwide since the late 1970s.[1] The vast majority of these cases occurred in Africa, South Asia and the Americas. As of late 1994, an estimated 18 million adults and 1.5 million children, had been infected with HIV since the beginning of the pandemic. Countries in southern and central Africa, and South Asia accounted for over three-quarters of these infections.

In the United States, AIDS is a much more common disease than it is in Canada. In 1994, there were 1,542 AIDS cases for every million people, compared with 380 cases per million in Canada. Moreover, the distribution of cases by risk factor is different in the United States, with a much larger proportion of cases in that country contracted through injection drug use. Rates in some other developed countries included 578 cases per million people in France; 426 cases per million in Italy; 302 cases in Australia; 173 in the United Kingdom; and 7 cases for every million people in Japan.

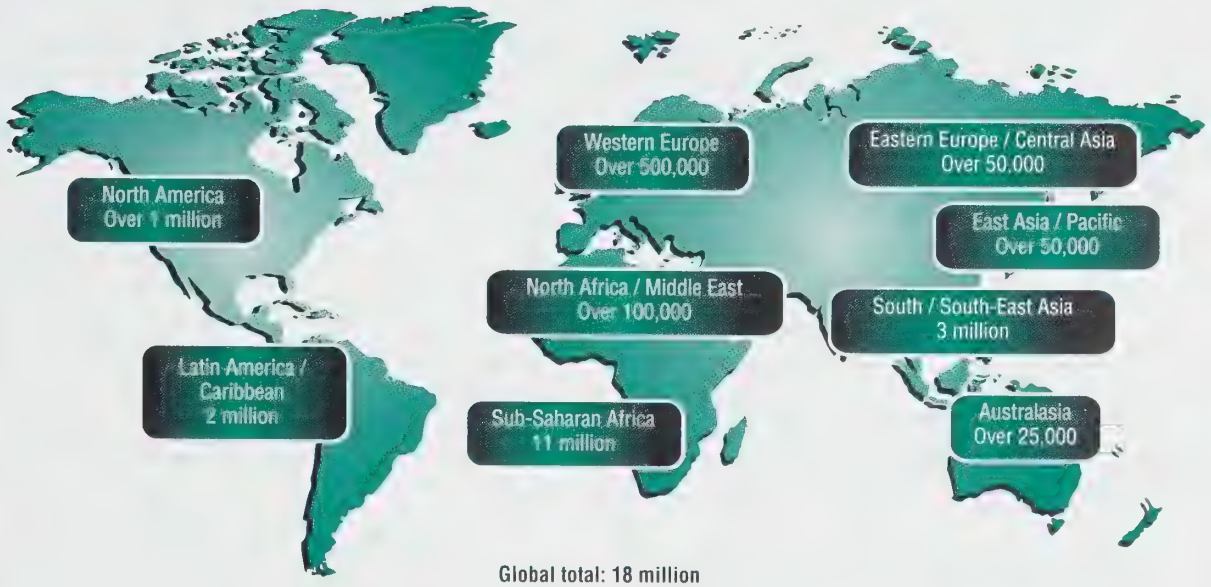
[1] **Weekly Epidemiological Record**, 13 January 1995, vol. 70, no. 2, World Health Organization.

Rates of AIDS cases for selected countries, 1994



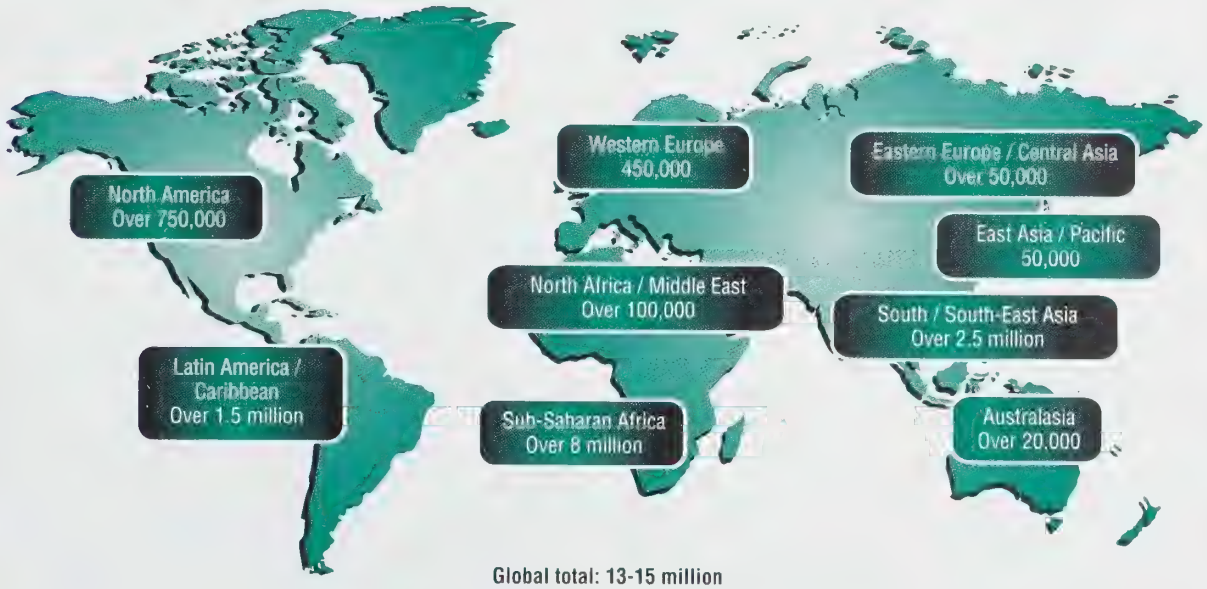
Source: Health Canada, Division of HIV/AIDS Epidemiology, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, **Quarterly Surveillance Update: AIDS in Canada**, January 1995.

Estimated distribution of total adult HIV infections from late 1970s/early 1980s until late 1994



Global total: 18 million

Estimated distribution of HIV-infected adults alive as of late 1994



Global total: 13-15 million

Source: World Health Organization, **Weekly Epidemiological Record**, vol.70, no.2, 13 January 1995.

reported. The annual number of deaths due to diseases brought on by AIDS increased in each successive year since the early 1980s until 1993. For that year, 1,293 deaths due to AIDS had been reported by the end of 1995. The numbers for 1994 and 1995 were 1,248 and 901, respectively.

Delays in the reporting of AIDS-related deaths, however, mask what is likely a continuing increase. For example, 126 deaths that occurred in 1994, and 36 deaths that occurred in 1993 were reported only during the second half of 1995. Thus, the numbers for recent years will continue to be adjusted upwards as reports of more deaths due to AIDS are received.

The pattern of AIDS-related deaths closely follows the age-sex profile of AIDS cases, with men in their 30s and 40s, and to a lesser extent those in their 20s, being the most likely to succumb as a result of the disease. In fact, for men aged 20 to 44 in 1993, HIV/AIDS was the third leading cause of death, representing 18 deaths for every 100,000 men that age. Only suicide (28 deaths per 100,000) and motor vehicle crashes (21 per 100,000) caused more deaths among men in this age group. The AIDS death rate for men this age was slightly higher than the rate of deaths caused by cancer (17.5 per 100,000). In 1993, AIDS caused 1,077 deaths among men aged 20 to 44, compared with only 68 among women that age (1 death per 100,000).

Rates highest in British Columbia, Ontario and Quebec Of all adult AIDS cases reported by the end of 1994, 42% were in Ontario, 29% in Quebec and 18% were in British Columbia. At 75 cases for every 100,000 adults, however, the incidence rate was highest in British Columbia. This was followed by Ontario with 73 cases per 100,000, and Quebec with 69 cases for every 100,000 adults.

Nearly one-half (49%) of all AIDS cases among women in Canada were in Quebec. The higher rate for Quebec women is partly a result of immigration patterns. Immigrants in Quebec are more likely to come from countries where AIDS is as common among females as it is among males. Haiti, for example, is one of these countries and accounted for nearly one in ten immigrants who arrived in Quebec between 1981 and 1991. In that province, heterosexual activity with a person from a country where AIDS is endemic was identified as the risk factor in 11% of all cases, compared with less than 1% in the rest of Canada.

• See this issue's **Educator's Notebook** for a suggested lesson plan based on this article.

Jeffrey Frank is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends**.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Laboratory Centre for Disease Control

Data used in this article were produced by the Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, Health Canada. The Centre collects data on AIDS cases and deaths on a quarterly basis. For more information, see **1994 Annual Report of AIDS in Canada**, Health Canada, Bureau of HIV/AIDS and STD, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control. Also available is the **Quarterly Surveillance Update: AIDS in Canada**. Copies of these and other publications are available in either official language, free of charge:

By Mail:
Health Canada, Division of HIV/AIDS Surveillance, Bureau of HIV/AIDS and STD, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, Ottawa, Ontario Canada, K1A 0L2, Postal locator: 0202A.

By Internet:
The **Quarterly Surveillance Update: AIDS in Canada** can be accessed electronically using a Web browser at http://hpb1.hwc.ca:8300 or via Gopher at hpb1.hwc.ca port 7300 (select Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, HIV/AIDS, HIV/AIDS statistics).

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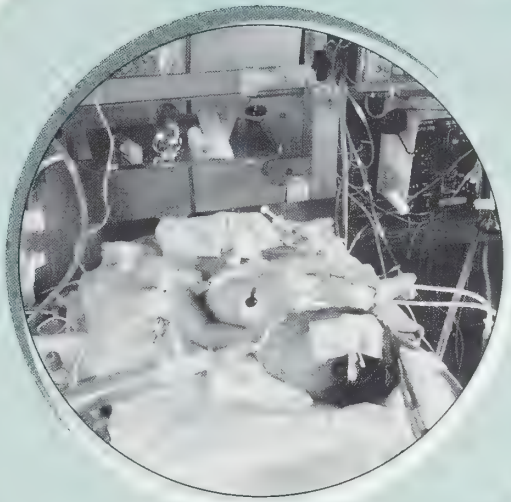
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Causes of Death

by Kathryn Wilkins





How the Sexes Differ

Biological, social and behavioural factors have resulted in differences in the most common causes of death for males and females. In infancy, the causes are similar. During childhood, the leading causes of death start to diverge, and by adulthood, they differ sharply between the sexes. As people advance into their senior years, however, these differences tend to diminish, and causes of death are once again similar for men and women.

Not only do the causes of death differ between the sexes, but so do the ages at which death occurs. At all ages, death rates for each broad cause are higher for males than for females. But while the male death rate surpasses the female rate throughout the lifespan, the greatest difference is in early and middle adulthood. Much of this difference is due to deaths from external causes (such as motor vehicle crashes), the rate of which is higher for men than it is for women. Because males are more likely to die at a younger age, substantially fewer males than females survive until age 75.

In 1993, a total of 204,912 deaths occurred in Canada (109,407 males and 95,505 females). This represented 890 deaths per 100,000 males and 534 deaths for every 100,000 females. Thus, there were 1.67 male deaths for each female death (a male-female death rate ratio of 1.67).

Death rates highest for infants and seniors During the first year of life, the death rate is relatively high. In 1993, the rate was 628 deaths per 100,000 infants under age 1. For deaths that occurred later in childhood, however, rates were much lower: 23 deaths per 100,000 children aged 1 to 9, and 19 deaths per 100,000 children aged 10 to 14. The rate was considerably higher among people aged 15 to 19 (61 deaths per 100,000). The death rate continued to increase with age, and was highest among seniors (4,523 deaths per 100,000 people aged 65 and over).

Regardless of age, males have higher death rates than females. The difference, however, is not the same for all age groups. For infants, the male-to-female ratio of death rates was 1.23 in 1993. At ages 1 to 9, the ratio increased slightly to 1.31, and by ages 10 to 14, it reached 1.42. At ages 15 to 19, the ratio jumped to 2.32. After this age, the male-to-female death rate ratio declined steadily to 1.36 for individuals aged 65 and over.

Causes of death similar for boys and girls under age 10 By broad category, the leading causes of death are similar for infant boys and girls. Of all deaths among children under age 1 in 1993, 72% were due either to perinatal causes (such as prematurity) or to congenital anomalies (such as structural defects of the heart). When more specific causes were considered, sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS) emerged as the leading cause of death among children who had not yet reached their first birthday. This was followed by congenital anomalies of the circulatory system and complications during birth (obstetric complications).

At ages 1 to 9, different causes of death take precedence over those common in infancy, but there is little difference between boys and girls. In 1993, external causes – principally motor vehicle crashes – accounted for the largest share of deaths (42% of deaths among boys, 39% among girls). Cancer ranked second (14% of deaths among both sexes), and congenital anomalies were third (13% of deaths among boys and 10% among girls). The higher death rate among boys was attributable equally to external and non-external causes. The rates for external causes were 11 deaths per 100,000 boys and 8 per 100,000 girls; and for non-external causes, 15 and 12 deaths per 100,000 for boys and girls, respectively.

More deaths from external causes among males aged 10 to 19 At ages 10 to 14, the leading causes of death in 1993 were the same for both sexes, but the proportion of deaths of boys due to external causes exceeded that for girls. Over half (54%) of the deaths among boys were due to external causes, compared with 45% of the deaths among girls. The leading specific cause of death for both sexes was motor vehicle accidents, followed by suicide.

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Data sources and definitions

The data in this article are derived from information collected by provincial and territorial registries of vital statistics, which are responsible for the registration of deaths that occur in their jurisdiction. All causes contributing to a person's death are entered on the individual's death certificate. According to rules established by the World Health Organization and defined in the Ninth Revision of the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-9), a single underlying cause of death is selected for each decedent. Each cause of death is assigned a code, according to the ICD-9.

This article distinguishes between external and non-external causes of death. External causes include events such as suicide, poisoning, and motor vehicle and other types of accidents. Non-external causes of death, in contrast, arise from natural physiological processes.

A distinction is also made between broad and specific categories of causes of death. Broad categories generally correspond with chapter headings of the ICD-9. Within these broad categories are more "specific" causes of death which are defined by grouping ICD-9 codes for the purposes of this article. These groupings of ICD-9 codes into specific causes of death are arbitrary and could be defined in other ways.

Leading causes of death were determined using both broad and specific causes. For example, suicide and motor vehicle accidents – the leading specific causes of death for men aged 20 to 44 – are subcategories of the leading broad category, external causes. Similarly, for women aged 65 and over, the leading specific causes of death are heart disease and stroke, both of which are subcategories of the leading broad category, diseases of the circulatory system.

Death rates were calculated using postcensal population estimates which adjust for census undercounting and include non-permanent residents. For comparisons over time, death rates were age standardized to the 1991 Canadian population – that is, they took into account the changes that occurred in the age structure of the population.

Among 15- to 19-year-olds, 79% of male deaths, compared with 68% of female deaths, were a result of external causes in 1993. Motor vehicle crashes were responsible for about 40% of deaths among males and a slightly higher percentage (42%) among females. The rate of death due to motor vehicle accidents, however, was more than twice as high for males than it was for females: 34 versus 16 deaths per 100,000, respectively. Suicide, the second leading cause of death at these ages, accounted for 23% of male deaths, compared with 13% among females. Suicide rates were 19 per 100,000 males and 5 for every 100,000 females.

Suicide the leading cause of death among men aged 20 to 44 For both men and women aged 20 to 44, non-external causes accounted for the majority of deaths in 1993. Nevertheless, external causes accounted for nearly half the deaths among men and just under one-third of those among women this age. The leading specific cause of death for men aged 20 to 44 was suicide (28 deaths per 100,000 men that age), followed by motor vehicle accidents (21 deaths per 100,000). Women's suicide and motor vehicle accident death rates were substantially lower: 7 and 8 deaths per 100,000 women aged 20 to 44, respectively.

About half of all deaths among men aged 20 to 44 were due to non-external causes, compared with 69% for women. Still, men's death rate from non-external causes was considerably higher than that of women: 77 versus 46 deaths per 100,000. A large part of this difference was due to HIV/AIDS. Deaths related to HIV/AIDS, the third leading cause of death for men aged 20 to 44 (18 deaths per 100,000), occurred slightly more frequently than deaths due to cancer. HIV/AIDS caused 1,077 deaths among men aged 20 to 44, compared with only 68 among women that age (1 death per 100,000 women).

Among women aged 20 to 44, the three leading specific causes of death were motor vehicle accidents, breast cancer and suicide, at rates of around 7 deaths per 100,000 for each cause. In this age group, the female death rate for all cancers actually surpassed the rate for males (24 versus 18 deaths per 100,000), mostly because of deaths due to breast cancer.

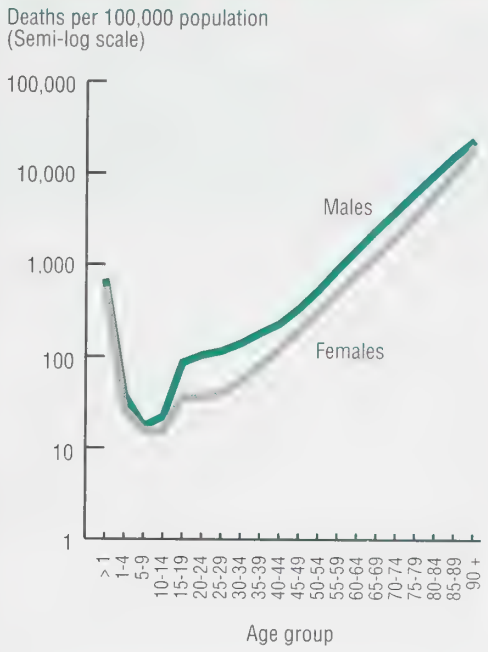
Cancer the leading cause of death for both men and women aged 45 to 64 At ages 45 to 64, the leading causes of death for men and women become more similar. For both sexes, in 1993, cancer was the leading broad cause (273 deaths per 100,000 men and 226 deaths per 100,000 women), followed by diseases of the circulatory system (248 and 89 deaths per 100,000, respectively). Together, cancer and circulatory diseases accounted for 71% of deaths among men and 74% of deaths among women.

For men aged 45 to 64, the three leading specific causes of death were heart disease[1] (177 deaths per 100,000), lung cancer (102 deaths per 100,000), and colorectal cancer (29 deaths per 100,000). Among women, the leading specific cause of death was lung cancer (56 deaths per 100,000), followed by breast cancer (54 deaths per 100,000), and heart disease (48 deaths per 100,000).

Death rates due to external causes at ages 45 to 64 were fairly similar to those at ages 20 to 44. But because of the growing predominance of non-external causes, much smaller proportions

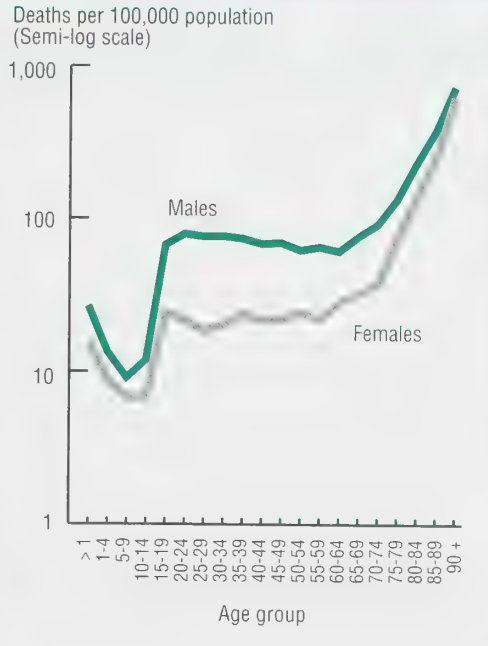
[1] Refers to ischaemic heart disease (IHD) which results from a deficiency of blood supply to the heart muscle. The most common forms of IHD are heart attack and blockage of the coronary artery.

Age-specific death rates for all causes in Canada, 1993



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, vol. 7, no. 2.

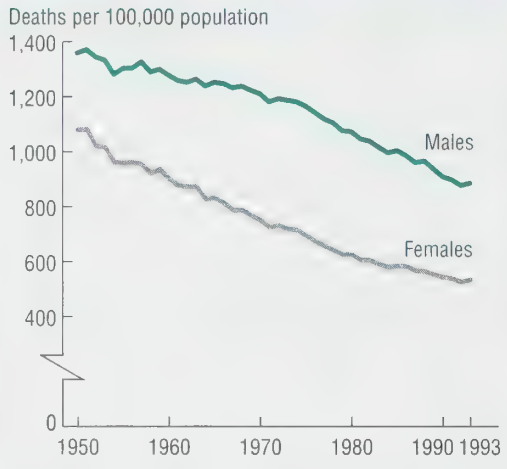
Age-specific death rates for external causes in Canada, 1993



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, vol. 7, no. 2.

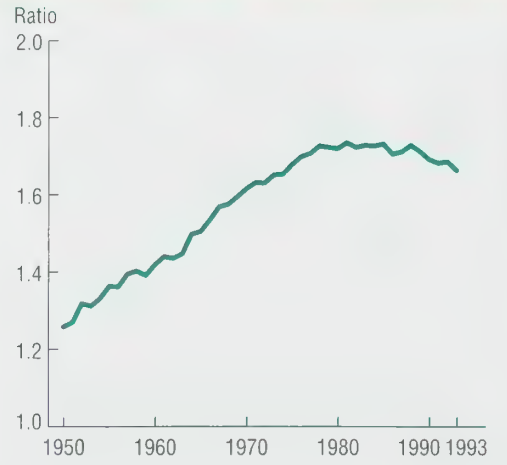
of deaths among people aged 45 to 64 were attributable to external causes: 9% for men and 6% for women. Among men, suicide was the leading external cause of death (26 deaths per 100,000), distantly followed by motor vehicle accidents (15 deaths per 100,000). Suicide was also the leading external cause of death among women aged 45 to 64. At 8 deaths per 100,000, the rate was higher than those for women in younger age groups. Motor vehicle accidents, however, caused almost as many deaths of women aged 45 to 64 (7 per 100,000) as did suicides.

Age-standardized death rates[1] in Canada, 1950-1993



[1] Age standardized to the 1991 Canadian population.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, vol. 7, no. 2.

Male-to-female ratio of age-standardized death rates[1] in Canada, 1950-1993



[1] Age standardized to the 1991 Canadian population.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, vol. 7, no. 2.

Circulatory diseases lead causes of death among seniors In 1993, diseases of the circulatory system comprised the leading broad cause of death among people aged 65 and over. That year, circulatory diseases accounted for 42% of male and 46% of female deaths. Cancer ranked second, making up 28% of male and 23% of female deaths among seniors.

The leading specific cause of death for both men and women aged 65 and over was heart disease. The rates of death due to heart disease were 1,360 deaths per 100,000 senior men and 924 deaths per 100,000 senior women. The second-ranking specific causes of death were lung cancer for men (482 deaths per 100,000) and cerebrovascular disease (stroke) for women (419 deaths per 100,000). Stroke ranked third as a cause of death among senior men and the rate (389 deaths per 100,000) was actually lower than that for women. For women, pneumonia and influenza ranked third, followed by lung cancer (180 and 170 deaths per 100,000, respectively).

At age 65 and over, external causes accounted for just 3% of deaths among men and 2% among women. Death rates for external causes, however, were strikingly high (134 and 95 deaths per 100,000 men and women, respectively), compared with the rates for younger people. Among seniors, falls caused the most deaths of any external cause, and the rate for women was slightly higher than that of men. For senior men, suicide was a notable external cause of death. In fact, the 1993 suicide rate for men aged 65 and over, at 24 deaths per 100,000, was only slightly lower than the rates among younger men.

Declines in death rates more pronounced among females Since 1950, age-standardized death rates have fallen dramatically, although the drop among females has been sharper than that among males. From 1950 to 1993, the female death rate declined 51%, compared with a 35% decrease for males. As a result, the male-to-female ratio of age-standardized death rates rose from 1.26 in 1950 to 1.67 in 1993. The 1993 sex differential, however, was somewhat lower than in the late 1970s and early 1980s, when the ratio peaked at 1.73.

The net increase in the male-to-female ratio of death rates from 1950 to 1993 was largely attributable to changes in the rates for the four leading causes: circulatory diseases, cancer, respiratory diseases and external causes. Over the entire period, female death rates for each of these four leading causes fell. Among males, in contrast, cancer and respiratory diseases death rates rose, reflecting increases in rates of smoking in earlier decades. As a result, these diseases contributed most to the increase in the sex differential in the overall death rate. For circulatory diseases and external causes, male death rates dropped, but not as much as female death rates. Similarly, for all other causes combined, the death rate fell more among females (57%) than it did among males (48%).

Decline in circulatory disease deaths underlies overall decline in death rates The overall decline in death rates was largely due to decreases in deaths caused by circulatory diseases. From 1950 to 1993, the female death rate for circulatory diseases fell 64% from 567 to 204 deaths per 100,000. For males, the

Leading causes of death in Canada, 1993

CST

MALES	Deaths per 100,000
Age under 1 – All causes	**685.0**
Perinatal mortality	302.5
Obstetric complications	66.1
Other respiratory conditions	54.6
Congenital anomalies	188.8
Anomalies of circulatory system	75.0
Sudden infant death syndrome	70.0
Age 1 to 9 – All causes	**26.1**
External causes	10.9
Motor vehicle accidents	3.8
Drowning	2.5
Non-external causes	15.2
Cancer	3.6
Congenital anomalies	3.4
Age 10 to 14 – All causes	**21.8**
External causes	11.8
Motor vehicle accidents	6.0
Suicide	2.6
Non-external causes	10.0
Cancer	3.1
Age 15 to 19 – All causes	**84.5**
External causes	66.7
Motor vehicle accidents	33.5
Suicide	19.4
Non-external causes	17.8
Cancer	5.4
Age 20 to 44 – All causes	**151.2**
Non-external causes	76.6
HIV	18.0
Cancer	17.5
External causes	74.5
Suicide	28.2
Motor vehicle accidents	20.8
Age 45 to 64 – All causes	**735.9**
Non-external causes	671.1
Cancer	272.9
Lung cancer	101.9
Colorectal cancer	28.8
Diseases of the circulatory system	248.2
Ischaemic heart disease	177.1
External causes	64.8
Suicide	26.2
Motor vehicle accidents	14.6
Age 65 and over – All causes	**5,333.9**
Non-external causes	5,199.7
Diseases of the circulatory system	2,260.9
Ischaemic heart disease	1,360.1
Stroke	389.2
Cancer	1,497.3
Lung cancer	482.3
Prostate cancer	231.1
Respiratory diseases	624.9
External causes	134.2
Falls	56.0
Suicide	24.4

FEMALES	Deaths per 100,000
Age under 1 – All causes	**557.4**
Perinatal mortality	227.9
Obstetric complications	54.2
Other respiratory conditions	42.2
Congenital anomalies	172.1
Anomalies of circulatory system	55.8
Sudden infant death syndrome	65.2
Age 1 to 9 – All causes	**19.9**
External causes	7.7
Motor vehicle accidents	3.5
Non-external causes	12.2
Cancer	2.8
Congenital anomalies	2.1
Age 10 to 14 – All causes	**15.3**
External causes	6.9
Motor vehicle accidents	2.9
Suicide	1.9
Non-external causes	8.4
Cancer	2.8
Age 15 to 19 – All causes	**36.4**
External causes	24.7
Motor vehicle accidents	15.5
Suicide	4.6
Non-external causes	11.7
Cancer	3.7
Age 20 to 44 – All causes	**67.2**
Non-external causes	46.1
Cancer	23.8
Breast cancer	7.3
Lung cancer	3.0
External causes	21.2
Motor vehicle accidents	7.7
Suicide	6.5
Age 45 to 64 – All causes	**424.7**
Non-external causes	400.6
Cancer	225.6
Lung cancer	55.5
Breast cancer	53.5
Diseases of the circulatory system	89.2
Ischaemic heart disease	47.9
External causes	24.1
Suicide	7.9
Motor vehicle accidents	6.9
Age 65 and over – All causes	**3,934.0**
Non-external causes	3,838.9
Diseases of the circulatory system	1,799.5
Ischaemic heart disease	924.3
Stroke	419.2
Cancer	896.9
Lung cancer	169.7
Breast cancer	142.2
Respiratory diseases	373.0
Pneumonia and influenza	179.8
External causes	95.0
Falls	58.8
Motor vehicle accidents	12.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, vol. 7, no. 2.



death rate decreased by 52%, falling from 708 to 340 deaths per 100,000.

The female circulatory diseases death rate fell steadily over the entire period, but among males, the steepest decrease began in the mid-1970s. The male-to-female ratio of circulatory disease death rates was 1.3 in 1950, peaked at 1.7 in 1983, and has since remained fairly constant (1.67 in 1993).

Trends in cancer death rates more varied Trends in cancer mortality rates differed from those of circulatory diseases. Among males, the cancer death rate rose from 179 deaths per 100,000 in 1950 to peak at 255 in 1988, and then fell to 241 in 1993. This was a net increase of 35% over the 1950 rate. The female cancer death rate decreased gradually from 165 deaths per 100,000 in 1950 to 145 in 1976, then rose slightly, and remained fairly stable during the 1980s and early 1990s. The 1993 rate was 154 deaths per 100,000 females, which amounted to a net decrease of 7% since 1950. Thus, in 1950, the male-to-female ratio of cancer death rates was 1.08. The ratio peaked at 1.64 in 1988, and has since narrowed slightly (1.57 in 1993).

Lung cancer contributed most to the increase in the male cancer death rate (nearly one-third of cancer deaths among men in 1993). In addition, prostate cancer accounted for about one-eighth of male cancer deaths that year. The lung cancer death rate rose sharply from 18 deaths per 100,000 males in 1950 to 81 in 1988 and 1989, and declined slightly in the early 1990s.[2] The prostate cancer death rate rose slowly from 20 deaths per 100,000 in 1950, to 31 in 1993.

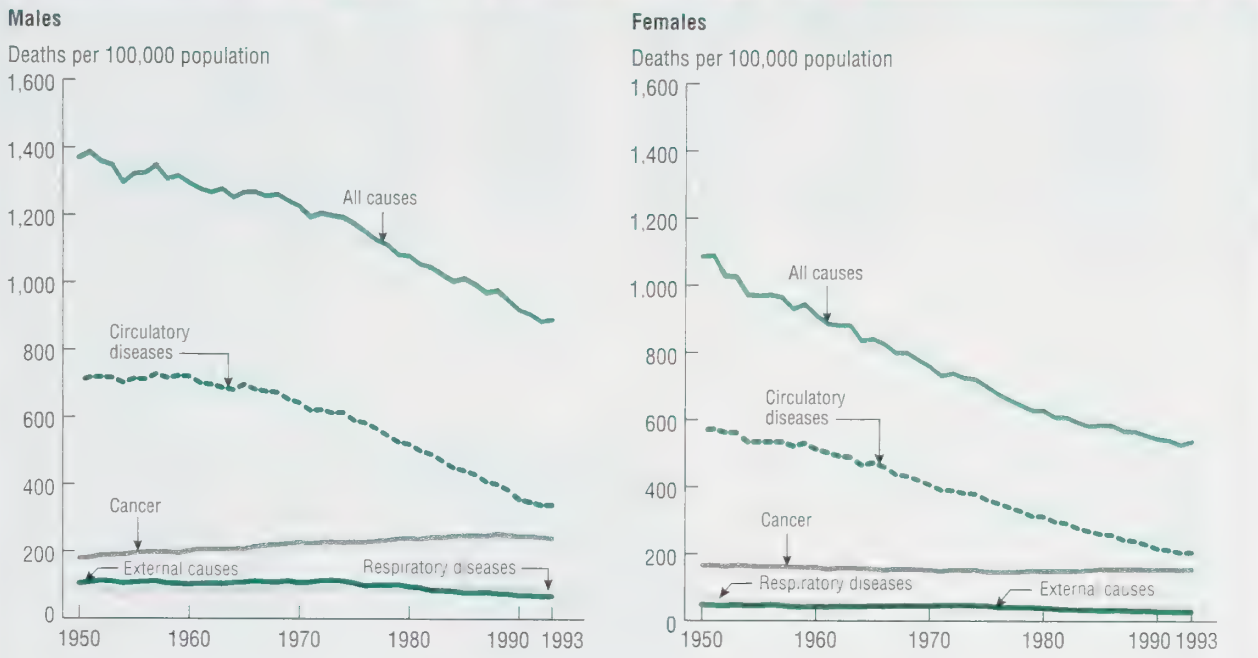
Malignancies of the breast and lung each accounted for one-fifth of total female cancer deaths in 1993. Since 1950, the death rate for lung cancer rose from 4 to 32 deaths per 100,000 females, with the most rapid increase occurring during the 1970s. The death rate from breast cancer, on the other hand, was remarkably stable over the period, at 30 deaths per 100,000.

Rise and fall of respiratory disease death rates Trends in male and female death rates due to respiratory diseases have differed considerably since 1950. That year, death rates from respiratory disease were 84 deaths for every 100,000 males and 62 deaths per 100,000 females. Among males, the rate fluctuated until the mid-1960s, and then generally increased to peak at 99 deaths per 100,000 in the mid-1970s. Thereafter, the rate fell gradually to 88 deaths per 100,000 in 1993, slightly above the 1950 level.

In contrast, from 1950, the female death rate for respiratory diseases (62 deaths per 100,000) fell to a low of 32 deaths per 100,000 in 1979, and then rose slowly to 43 per 100,000 in 1993. The 1993 rate, though well below the 1950 level, had risen by about 35% over the 1979 figure. In 1950, the male-to-female ratio in the death rates from respiratory diseases was 1.35. This difference peaked at 2.60 in 1981. By 1993, it had fallen to 2.00.

External causes of death consistently more common among males Although the male death rate from external causes far surpasses that of females, trends in the rates have parallelled each other since 1950. The male death rate, at 104 deaths per 100,000 population in 1950, remained around that level until the early 1980s and then fell steadily to 67 deaths per 100,000 in 1993, for an overall decrease of 36%.

Age-standardized death rates[1] for leading causes in Canada, 1950-1993



[1] Age standardized to the 1991 Canadian population.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, vol. 7, no. 2.

The female death rate from external causes in 1950 was 46 deaths per 100,000, less than half the male rate. The pattern of decline, however, was the same: the rate remained relatively stable until the early 1980s when it began to drop, reaching 27 deaths per 100,000 in 1993 for an overall decrease of more than 40%. The male-to-female ratio of death rates from external causes was 2.3 in 1950. This ratio remained relatively stable over the period, and stood at 2.5 in 1993.

Implications Death rates among males are higher than among females from birth throughout the life cycle. Moreover, in 1993, cause-specific death rates were generally higher for males than females in every age group, as illustrated both by higher mortality in infant boys (due to perinatal causes and congenital anomalies), and by higher rates of circulatory disease death in later life. As a result, based on the age-specific death rates in 1993, life expectancy at birth was 74.9 years for men and 81.0 years for women.

A substantial proportion of the excess in premature deaths among males is attributable to socio-economic and behavioural factors. These include deaths due to motor vehicle crashes, suicide, HIV/AIDS, and lung and other smoking-related cancers. Consequently, public health and education programs aimed at reducing death rates will probably be most effective when targeted at younger people, and at young adult men in particular.

[2] For a discussion of the link between smoking and cancer mortality, see "Trends in mortality from smoking-related cancers, 1950 to 1991," **Canadian Social Trends**, Winter 1995.

• A version of this article appeared in **Health Reports**, 1995, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, vol. 7, no. 2.

Kathryn Wilkins is an analyst with the Health Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

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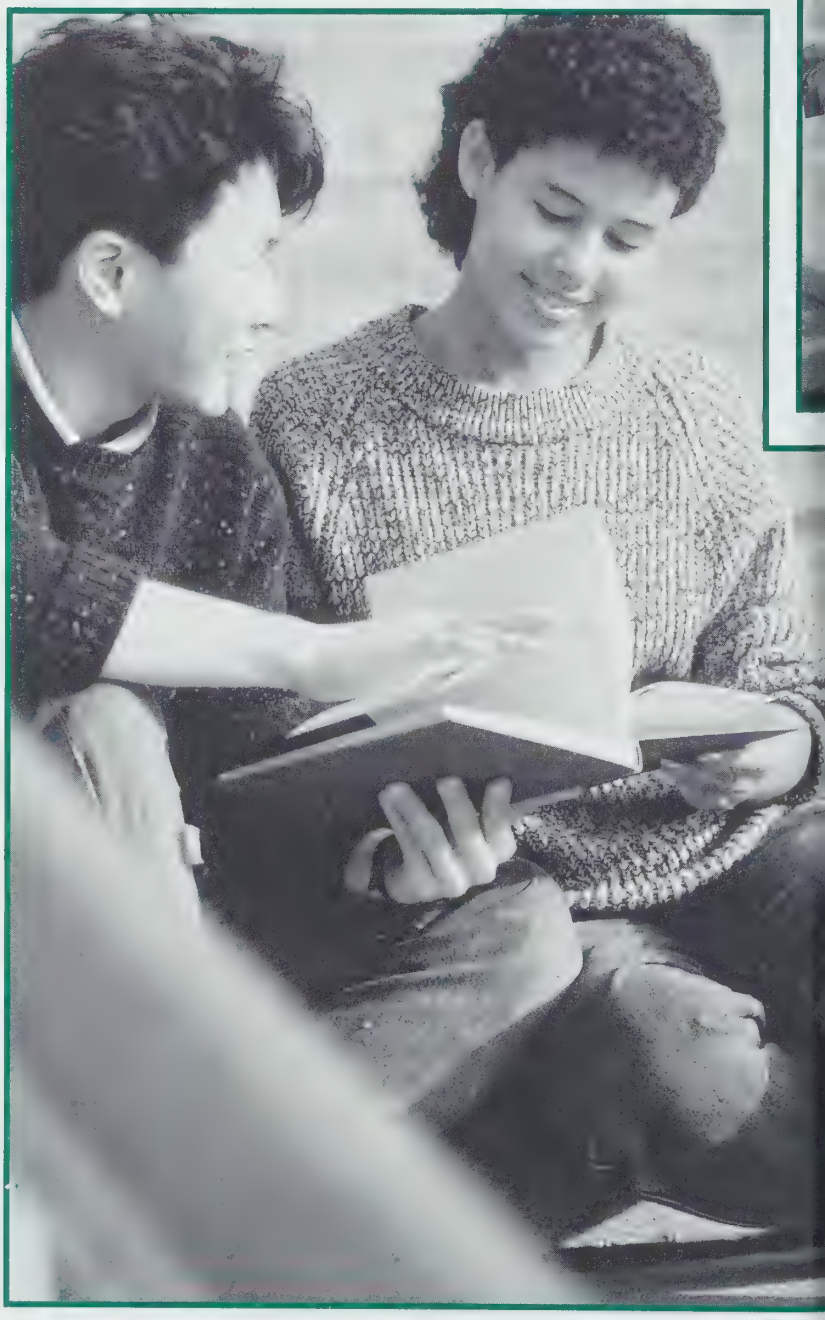
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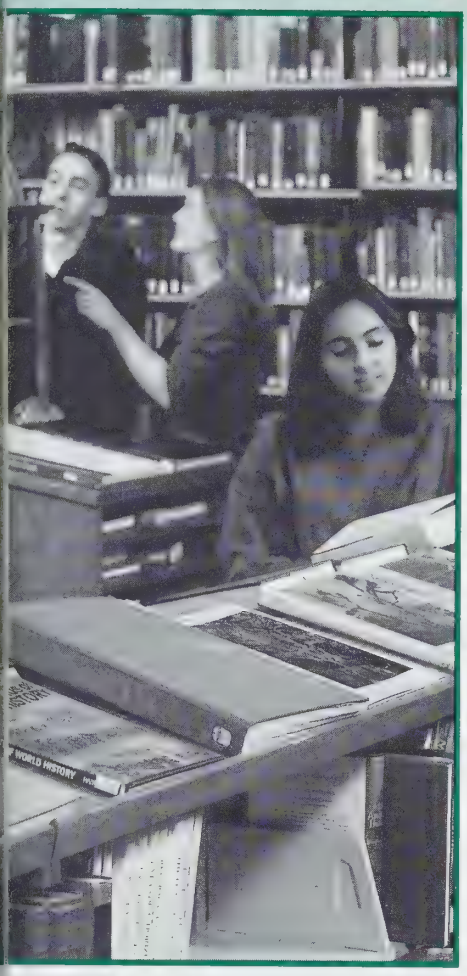
INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN CANADA

by Tina Chui

CANADA HAS BECOME A WORLD leader in hosting international students. Ranked fifth in the world in 1992, Canada was behind only the United States, France, Germany and the United Kingdom in the number of international postsecondary students hosted. At all levels during the 1993-94 school year, approximately 87,000 international students were studying in Canadian universities, colleges and schools.

Although their stay in Canada is usually temporary, international students often bring both cultural and financial benefits. Their presence can enrich Canadian campuses by contributing to a culturally and intellectually diverse learning environment. Also, their enrolment may generate additional revenues for educational institutions at a time when education budgets are under severe pressure. The impact of international students often extends beyond their period of study and their ties with Canada can continue long after they return to their countries.





Number of international students has increased over the years Canada has traditionally opened its doors to students from around the world. In 1920, when Statistics Canada began collecting information on international students, approximately 1,300 were registered full time in Canadian universities. In the mid-1970s, about 42,000 international students (full and part time) were studying in Canada's universities, colleges and schools. The overall number of international students grew over the next twenty years, although there was a decline between 1982 and 1986, and again in the early 1990s. The nearly 87,000 international students registered in Canadian educational institutions in 1993-94 represented 1% of Canada's total student enrolment.

Many people think of international students only in the context of post-secondary education. While the largest proportion of international students (41%) were enrolled in universities and another 27% were in colleges and trade schools, almost one-third (32%) were elementary and secondary students.

Ontario hosted the largest number In 1993-94, the majority of international students (90%) were enrolled in educational institutions in Canada's four largest provinces. Almost half (48%) of all international students, compared with 39% of Canadian students, were registered in Ontario's education system. Another 17% of international students went to universities, colleges and schools in British Columbia, 16% in Quebec and 8% in Alberta.

Over half came from Asia Although Canada's international students come from over 200 countries around the world, large proportions are from a relatively small number of countries. In 1993-94, slightly over half (52%) were from Asia, particularly East Asia (31%). Significant proportions of international students also came from Europe (16%) and North or Central America (14%). Among individual countries, Hong Kong (12%), the United States (8%), Japan (7%), Sri Lanka and China (5% each) had the largest numbers of international students in Canada.

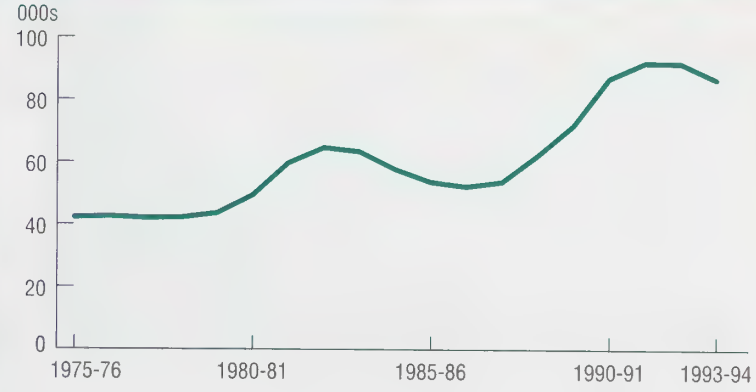
Many came to study in universities Although international students are enrolled at all levels of the education system, they are most likely to be in university. In 1993-94, about 35,000 international students (41%) were registered in universities. International students, however, made up only 4% of total university enrolment. Most of these international university students (84%) were registered full time.

In 1993-94, over one-third (35%) of all international university students were registered in Ontario. Among individual universities, the University of Toronto had the largest number, at 3,400. This represented 10% of all international university students in Canada. Montréal's McGill University ranked second with 3,000 international students, followed by the University of Montréal (2,600) and the University of British Columbia in Vancouver (2,200).

Higher proportions in graduate programs and sciences Many international students in Canadian universities are in graduate programs. Of all those enrolled in universities in 1993-94, 43% were in graduate programs, compared with 11% of Canadian university students. International students made up 10% of the enrolment in master's programs and 25% in doctoral programs. Thus, international students form a substantial component of graduate studies and research in Canadian universities.

Science programs account for a relatively large proportion of international university students. In 1993-94, 44% were registered in sciences, representing 7% of overall enrolment in these programs. In contrast, about one-quarter (23%) of all Canadian students were in sciences. Sixteen percent of international university

Increasing numbers of international students in Canada CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 81-261-XPB.

students were enrolled in engineering and applied sciences, 15% in mathematics and physical sciences, 7% in agriculture and biological sciences, and 6% in health professions.

In 1993-94, 28% of all international university students were in social sciences, compared with 31% of all Canadian students. International students made up 4% of total enrolment in social sciences. Among the most common social science programs for international university students were commerce and business administration (13%), and economics (6%).

Female international students less likely to be in graduate programs or sciences Women accounted for less than half (40%) of international university students and an even smaller proportion (31%) of those in graduate programs. As was the case with Canadian female university students, female international students were also less likely (28%) to be enrolled in sciences than their male counterparts (53%).

Official Development Assistance Program Every year, the Canadian government, through the Official Development Assistance Program (ODA), provides funding for the postsecondary education of people from developing countries. Most of this funding is administered by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). In 1993, about 20,000 students and professional trainees received support from ODA and one-third (33%) came to study in Canada. Women accounted for one in three of those supported by ODA. One-quarter (26%) of these women came to study in Canada, compared with just over one-third (36%) of men with ODA funding.

Eight out of ten people who were sponsored by ODA in 1993 came from Africa (47%) and Asia (37%). Among ODA-sponsored people who studied in Canada, those from China made up 12%, followed by students from Indonesia (6%), Kenya, India, Thailand and Morocco (4% each).

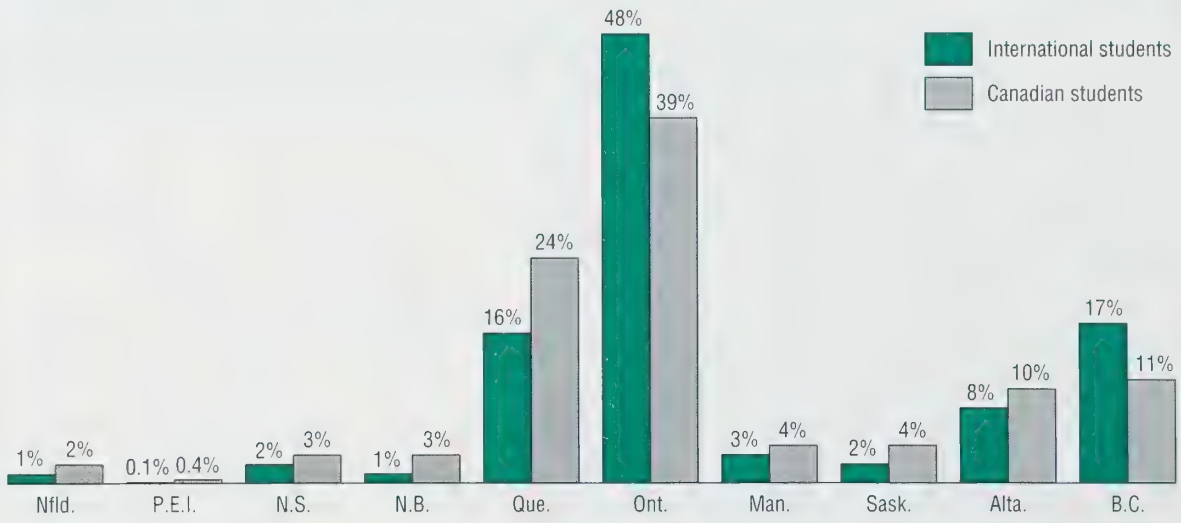
People receiving ODA support include both postsecondary students and professional trainees. In 1993, 54% of those who came to Canada under ODA funding were students. The vast majority (90%) studied in universities, especially in graduate programs – 46% at the master's level and 32% at the doctoral level. About one in ten international students registered in Canadian universities (9%) was supported by ODA. Among professional trainees, 38% took short courses and another 35% were on technical or study tours. These students and trainees tended to study sciences (40%) and social sciences (35%).

Funding from ODA is only one way that international students can finance their studies in Canada. Some international students study in Canada at their own expense, while others have access to various other means of funding, such as scholarships from their home countries, from individual universities or from numerous private foundations.

Attracting international students has short- and long-term benefits Limited information is available to estimate the costs and benefits of hosting international students in Canada. Evidence from the few studies that have been done suggests that the benefits of international students, both monetary and non-monetary, outweigh the costs.[1]

Although the tuition fees of international students vary by university and by program, international students generally pay tuition that is substantially higher than that paid by Canadian students. In 1993-94, for example, an undergraduate international student who studied engineering full time in an Ontario university paid about $12,000, while those in arts programs paid approximately $8,000. In

International students concentrated in Ontario's educational institutions in 1993-94



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

contrast, the tuition fees of their Canadian counterparts were $2,100 and $2,000, respectively.

International students also benefit local communities through consumer spending, and much of the money they spend often comes from outside Canada. Upon completion of their studies, some go on to become decision-makers in the governments and businesses of their own or other countries. Close ties with Canada could develop into business opportunities, thus enhancing Canada's position in a global economy.

Students from abroad learn about Canadian values, culture and work practices. They sometimes establish alumni associations in their countries and often become informal ambassadors for Canada. For those who decide to immigrate to Canada, their training in Canadian institutions is a definite advantage, both for finding employment and for adapting more easily into Canadian society.

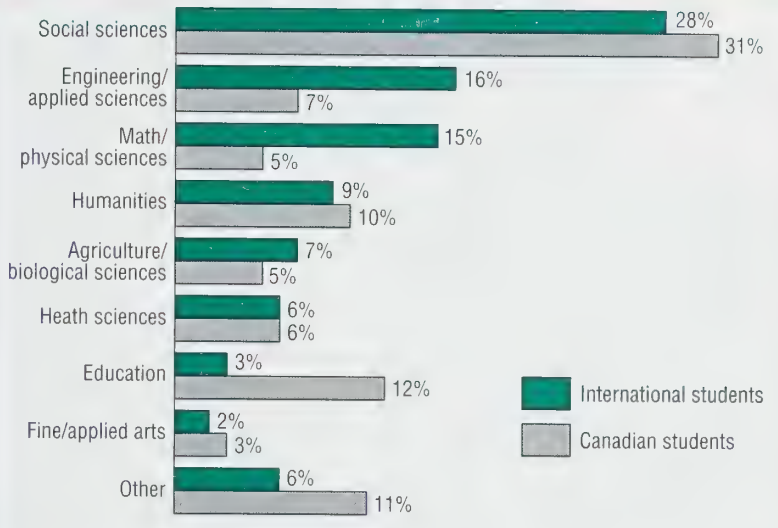
The presence of international students on Canadian campuses not only generates additional revenues, but also helps to maintain the availability of a broad range of programs for all students. In addition, university-based research contributes increasingly to the success of many Canadian industries and companies. Because international students play a significant role in graduate studies and research, Canadian universities and industries alike benefit from their continued participation.

[1] See Miala Diambomba, "Economic impact of international students in Canada: Exploratory cost-benefit analysis," study conducted for the Canadian Bureau for International Education, CBIE Research Report No. 5, 1993; and, the Vancouver Board of Trade, "The education in Canada of students from other countries," (unpublished report), World Trade Centre, Vancouver, June 1986.

Tina Chui is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends**.

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International university students more likely than Canadian students to study sciences in 1993-94



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

One-third of ODA-funded students and professional trainees came to Canada in 1993

		Students	Trainees	Total
Total		4,309	15,346	19,655
	Males	2,873	10,204	13,077
	Females	1,436	5,142	6,578
Studied in Canada		3,455	2,960	6,415
	Males	2,348	2,338	4,686
	Females	1,107	622	1,729
Studied in country of origin		392	11,117	11,509
	Males	229	6,998	7,227
	Females	163	4,119	4,282
Studied in a third country		462	1,269	1,731
	Males	296	868	1,164
	Females	166	401	567

Source: Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Technical Co-operation Data Unit.

CANADA'S CULTURAL LABOUR FORCE





University-educated, self-employed and holding down more than one job: this description is typical of many people working in Canada's cultural sector. The kinds of jobs available in culture and the incomes associated with them vary widely. The people with the highest incomes tend to be involved in the teaching, management and administration of culture. Meanwhile, those engaged directly in cultural production, such as artists, musicians and other performers, have among the lowest incomes. For many people in artistic occupations, working in culture appears to be a lifestyle choice, made despite the low monetary rewards often associated with this type of work.

by Jeffrey Frank

The 1994 Cultural Labour Force Survey (CLFS) targeted workers directly employed in culture, including many (one in ten) whose primary jobs were in other sectors. The survey results represent 156,600 Canadians engaged in paid or unpaid (but career-oriented) work in a variety of cultural occupations. These people were employed in a range of cultural areas, including visual arts, crafts, literary arts, performing arts, film and video, broadcasting, sound recording, publishing, public libraries and heritage institutions.

Men and women concentrated in different cultural occupations Overall in 1993, men accounted for 51% of workers surveyed. This proportion, however, varied considerably across occupational categories. For example, men accounted for 78% of film, performing arts and broadcasting technicians. Also, the majority of actors and other performers (67%), directors, producers and choreographers (64%), and musicians and people in other music occupations (64%) were men. On the other hand, women were more prominent in other cultural jobs. In 1993, 77% of dancers, 70% of craftspeople and 66% of heritage managers were women.

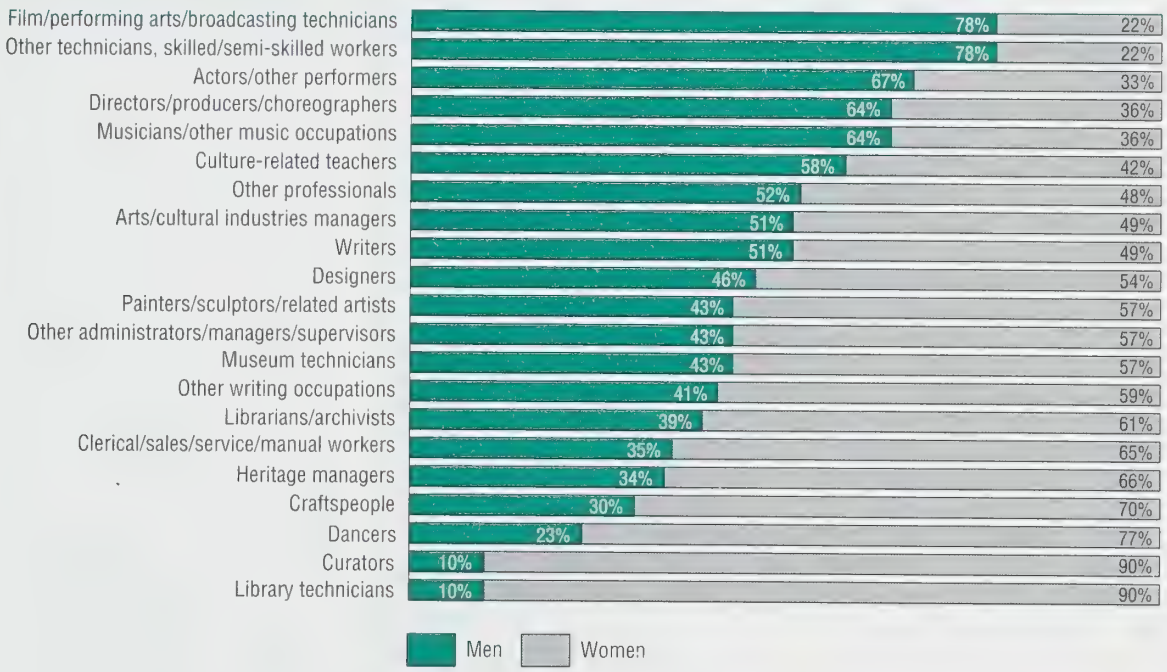
Over one-half of cultural workers held a university degree In 1993, 45% of those surveyed had a university degree. In comparison, 1991 Census data indicate that only 15% of the total Canadian labour force had a university degree. The high level of education among cultural workers reflects not only the nature of work in the arts, but perhaps a relationship between higher education and people's inclination toward creative activity.

Education levels varied across different cultural occupations. For example, cultural workers most likely to hold a university degree included fine arts and other culture-related teachers (93%), heritage managers (73%), writers (67%) and other professionals (58%). In contrast, 17% of people in clerical, sales, service and manual jobs in culture held a university degree. Also, 23% of film, performing arts and broadcasting technicians, and 24% of dancers held a university degree. All of these proportions were still above the average for the labour force as a whole.

Many self-employed, many with multiple jobs People working in the cultural sector are twice as likely as the average Canadian to be self-employed. In 1993, 29% of cultural workers were exclusively self-employed, compared with 15% of the entire labour force (according to 1993 annual averages from the Labour Force Survey). An additional 24% of cultural workers were both self-employed and working for someone else. These people held an average of 2.6 jobs each.[1] Overall, four out of ten people working in culture held two or more distinct jobs.

[1] Each separate occupation at which a self-employed person worked was counted as a job. For example, a person working as both a painter and a freelance writer was recorded as having two jobs.

Men and women concentrated in different cultural jobs in 1993[1]



[1] Includes only people whose primary job was in the cultural sector.
Source: Statistics Canada, Cultural Labour Force Survey, Product No. 87F0012XPE.

Painters and sculptors have lowest incomes Cultural income includes that from culture-related employment as well as income from other cultural sources such as royalties and grants. Average cultural income levels in 1993 ranged from $7,800 for painters, sculptors and related artists to $51,400 for fine arts and other culture-related teachers. Most other relatively well-paying cultural occupations were in management and administration. These included arts and cultural industries managers ($42,400), heritage managers ($39,900), and other administrators, managers and supervisors ($39,100). Film, performing arts and broadcasting technicians had an average income of $35,400, the highest among technical occupations in the cultural sector. Among artistic occupations, directors, producers and choreographers had the highest average cultural income, at $35,800 in 1993.

People working in culture often supplement their income through other, non-cultural sources. In general, people in artistic occupations rely most heavily on non-cultural income, while people with other jobs in the cultural sector are least dependent on non-cultural sources of income. For example, painters, sculptors and related artists had an average total income of $14,100, only 55% of which was cultural income. Although writers had a higher average income ($23,500), only 65% was from cultural sources. For musicians and people in other music occupations, average total income was $20,300 and 67% of this amount was culture-related.

In contrast, heritage managers had a total average income of $40,300, only 1% of which came from non-cultural sources. The situation was similar for culture-related teachers and arts and cultural industries managers, and to a lesser extent for other administrators, managers and supervisors, and for film, performing arts and broadcasting technicians. People in these jobs are more likely to work exclusively in the cultural sector, and less likely, therefore, to supplement their cultural income with income from other sources.

Among artistic occupations, only a few groups earned the vast majority of their income from cultural sources. The average total income for directors, producers and choreographers was $37,800, only 5% of which was non-cultural. Designers' average total income was $28,500, and 6% of this was from non-cultural sources. Although the average total income of dancers was relatively low ($16,300), only 12% of that income came from non-cultural activities or sources.

Thus, people working in culture are in a wide range of circumstances. Culture-related teachers, managers and administrators, for example, have incomes well above the norm for the cultural sector. These people most often work in institutional settings or in business, and have less of a need to supplement their income through non-cultural sources or activities. On the other hand, people in artistic occupations (performing artists, writers and visual artists) often receive large proportions of their income from activities or sources not related to culture. Somewhere between these examples are

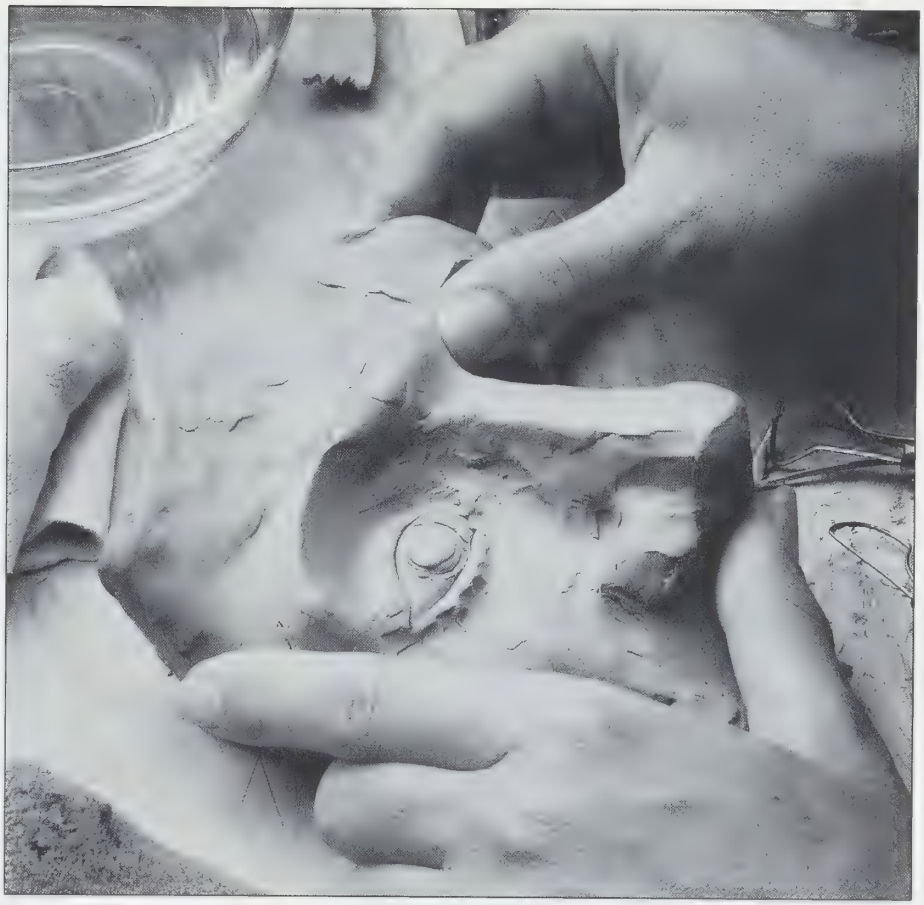
The Cultural Labour Force Survey identified 156,600 people working in culture in 1993

	Primary jobs[1]	Secondary jobs
Artists	**58,800**	**101,600**
Painters, sculptors and related artists	7,000	10,700
Craftspeople	2,700	4,000
Designers	2,600	4,300
Directors, producers and choreographers	8,900	13,100
Musicians and other music occupations	13,200	26,000
Dancers	1,300	2,600
Actors and other performers	7,200	13,700
Writers	8,400	16,300
Other writing occupations	7,500	10,900
Other jobs within the cultural sector	**83,000**	**111,300**
Arts and cultural industries managers	5,100	6,400
Heritage managers	4,700	5,300
Other administrators, managers and supervisors	14,000	17,200
Curators	3,000	3,600
Librarians and archivists	3,800	4,300
Culture-related teachers	7,700	15,700
Other professionals	4,400	6,100
Film, performing arts and broadcasting technicians	10,300	15,600
Library technicians	4,800	5,700
Museum technicians	5,400	6,400
Other technicians, skilled and semi-skilled workers	6,500	8,300
Clerical, sales, service and manual workers	13,300	16,700
Other jobs outside the cultural sector	**14,800**	**33,700**
Administrators, managers and supervisors	3,100	5,800
Professionals	4,300	9,400
Technicians, skilled and semi-skilled workers	2,500	4,800
Clerical, sales, service and manual workers	4,900	13,700
Total	**156,600**	**246,600**

[1] Primary job is the job where the most hours were worked over the year.
Source: Statistics Canada, Cultural Labour Force Survey, Product No. 87F0012XPE.

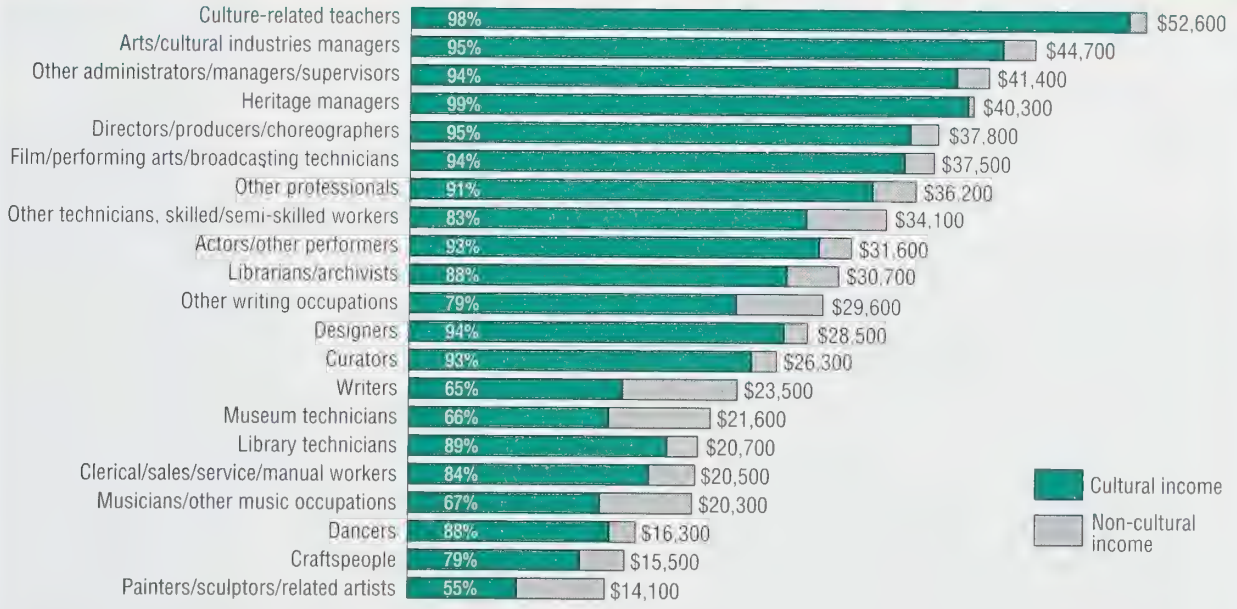
library technicians, other cultural professionals and curators: these workers have moderate incomes that come mainly from their jobs in the cultural sector.

On-the-job training and self-learning seen as most important Like many other workers, those in the cultural sector have been affected by technological changes in recent years. For example, computers, satellites, digital technology, and new materials and equipment have affected many cultural occupations and industries in different ways. Overall, 63% of people in artistic occupations and 67% of those with other jobs in the cultural sector reported having been affected by technological change since 1990. Workers in these other cultural jobs, however, were much more likely than those in artistic occupations to have received training as a result of technological change, 56% compared with 28%. This difference is likely due to people in non-artistic cultural occupations working more often in a larger business or institutional setting, where employer-sponsored training is more readily available.



Culture-related teachers, managers and administrators had the highest average incomes among cultural workers in 1993[1]

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[1] Includes only people whose primary job was in the cultural sector.
Source: Statistics Canada, Cultural Labour Force Survey, Product No. 87F0012XPE.

Despite high levels of formal education among cultural workers, on-the-job training or self-learning was often reported as the most important method of education and training. This was true even among cultural managers, administrators and other professionals, where over one-half said this type of training held the greatest importance for their job. College or university education was the most relevant source of education and training for 39% of culture-related teachers and 26% of painters, sculptors and related artists. Musicians and people in other music occupations were the only group to have a substantial proportion (35%) report that formal training or professional development was most important to their work. So, while technology has had a significant impact on the work of people in the cultural sector, on-the-job training and self-learning appear to be the predominant methods of keeping up-to-date.

Nevertheless, one-third of cultural workers (32%) stated a need for further education or training related to their cultural activities. Demand for additional training was slightly higher among people in artistic occupations (36%) than it was among those in other jobs within the cultural sector (30%). The reason most often cited for not having participated in additional education or training was that it was too expensive (46% of those wanting further training). Another 32% stated that they were too busy to undertake additional education or training.

The price of creativity People get involved in cultural activities because they enjoy or are driven toward the creative process. Considerations of monetary remuneration are often secondary. Results of the Cultural Labour Force Survey indicate that many people in artistic occupations have relatively low incomes and usually need to supplement their cultural income through other activities or sources. Higher incomes are generally found in occupations that deal with the business and administration of culture. As has often been said, the biggest subsidizers of culture are artists themselves. These well-educated and skilled people often sacrifice a higher standard of living to pursue their work in culture.

• For more information, see **Focus on Culture**, Autumn 1995, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 87-004-XPB, vol. 7, no. 3.

Jeffrey Frank is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends**.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Cultural Labour Force Survey

Commissioned by Human Resources Development Canada and conducted by Statistics Canada, the Cultural Labour Force Survey (CLFS) gathered information for the development of training and employment programs in the cultural sector. The survey, conducted in 1994, was developed with the cooperation of the Canadian Conference on the Arts, Canada Council, Department of Canadian Heritage, and many other organizations and individuals from the cultural community.

The survey targeted 156,600 paid and unpaid career-oriented people working as artists, administrators, professionals and technicians in eleven selected areas. These included visual arts, crafts, literary arts, performing arts, film and video, broadcasting, sound recording, book publishing, periodical publishing, public libraries and heritage institutions.

The survey sample was selected from the membership lists of professional associations, councils and unions in the cultural sector. Lists of employees working for publishers, sound recording companies, public libraries and heritage institutions were also used. For the purposes of this article, cultural workers are those included in the CLFS's target population.

The CLFS also collected information on people working in design, cultural education (other than teachers) and non-public libraries. Coverage of these groups, however, was incomplete and they are not included in this article. People working in other culture-related fields (such as telecommunications, printing, distribution and retailing) were not included in the CLFS, as they were beyond the scope of the survey. Some data on people working in these other areas are available from the census and other Statistics Canada sources.

Selected data tables from the CLFS are available on a cost-recovery basis, as are custom tabulations and analyses. For more information, contact Pina La Novara at (613) 951-1573 or write to Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6.

Cultural Human Resources Council

The Cultural Human Resources Council (CHRC) is a non-governmental organization, established as an initiative of the cultural sector through start-up funds provided by Human Resources Development Canada. The CHRC is using the results of the Cultural Labour Force Survey to develop and implement a human resources development strategy for the cultural sector in Canada. For further information on the work of the council, contact Marie Palmer (613) 565-7956. For information on the use of the survey by Human Resources Development Canada and on other sponsored projects relating to the cultural sector, contact Patricia Mosher (613) 957-2833.

CST

Condominium Living

by Oliver Lo

Canada's housing picture is largely a mixture of owner-occupied single homes and renter-occupied apartments or row dwellings.[1] Since the 1970s, the option of condominium ownership has made it possible for more people to own an apartment or row house, rather than rent. Because condominium dwellings are mainly apartments and row houses, and thus less expensive on average than other owner-occupied accommodation, they provide a more affordable way for many families to enter the housing market.





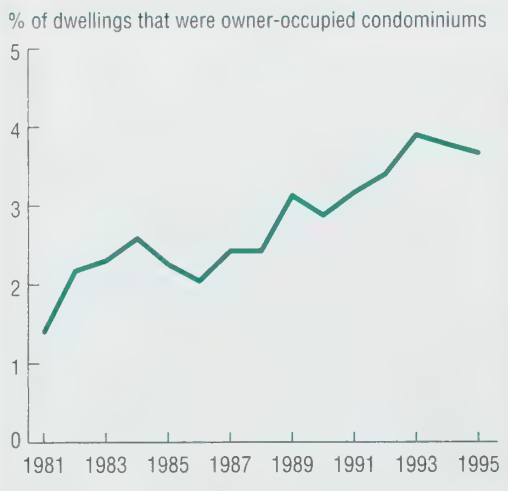
Although the proportion of Canadian households living in their own condominium unit is still relatively small, it has been growing. According to the annual Household Facilities and Equipment Survey, 4% of households lived in their own condominium in 1995.[2] This was higher than the proportion reported in 1981 (1%). Although most of the increase in these owner-occupied dwellings was through new construction, some former rental units have also been converted to condominiums.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Condominiums defined

A condominium is a residential complex in which dwellings are owned individually while land and superstructure (including common areas in the dwelling) are held in joint ownership with others. The Census of Canada, as well as some sample surveys, ask homeowners whether or not the dwelling they own and live in is part of a legally registered condominium. Many people also own condominium units as investments and rent them to others. Neither the census nor the Household Facilities and Equipment Survey identify rental units as condominium dwellings.

Condominium owner-occupancy small but growing CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division, Household Facilities and Equipment Survey.

For many purchasers, the lower price of condominiums relative to single-family dwellings is the deciding factor. Other elements, however, also contribute to the decision to choose condominium ownership. As the general population ages, an increasing number of couples with grown children no longer need a large house. Seniors may see this housing option as one that combines more security with less home-maintenance work. For people living alone, the lower relative cost of condominiums allows them to invest in a home rather than continuing to rent accommodation.

Apartment condominiums most common Census results indicate that condominiums are most often located in high-rise apartment buildings (with five or more storeys) and row houses. In 1991, 34% of condominium homes were in high-rise apartment buildings, about the same proportion as in 1981. Row houses accounted for just over 30% of the condominium market in 1991, down from 45% in 1981. Condominium units in low-rise apartment buildings (less than five storeys), however, have become more common. One-quarter (25%) of owner-occupied condominiums were in this type of building in 1991, up from 14% in 1981.

Most condominiums in largest metropolitan areas Condominiums tend to be a phenomenon of urban areas, where land values are higher and populations are more concentrated. In 1991, 88% of all owner-occupied condominiums in Canada were located in the 25 census metropolitan areas (CMAs).[3]

Toronto, Canada's largest CMA, had the greatest number of owner-occupied condominiums in 1991 (about 105,000 units). This was up from 66,000 units in 1981. Vancouver had the second largest number of owner-occupied condominiums in 1991 (61,000), almost triple the number in 1981 (23,000). Although there were fewer condominiums in Montréal, the number in that city grew at an even faster rate over the same period. By 1991, the number of owner-occupied condominiums in Montréal had increased nearly five-fold to 44,000, from just 9,000 ten years earlier.

Condominium living still represents a small proportion of home ownership in Canadian CMAs compared to other forms of home ownership. Owner-occupancy of condominiums was most prevalent in Vancouver (10%). Also above the all-CMA average of 5% were Victoria (9%), Toronto (8%) and Ottawa-Hull (7%). In smaller CMAs (those with less than 60,000 households), owner-occupied condominiums represented less than 2% of owned dwellings. Condominium living was least prevalent in the CMA of St. John's (0.5%).

Condominium ownership most common among households headed by seniors In 1991, 8% of households maintained[4] by seniors and 7% of those maintained by adults

[1] For additional information, see "Housing Tenure Trends, 1951-1991," **Canadian Social Trends**, Spring 1995.

[2] **Household Facilities and Equipment**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 64-202-XPB.

[3] The remainder of this article profiles condominium owner-occupants living in CMAs.

[4] The household maintainer is the person in a household who pays the rent or mortgage, taxes and electricity for a dwelling.

aged 55 to 64 were in an owner-occupied condominium. Among younger household maintainers, the proportion living in owner-occupied condominiums ranged from 2% of those under age 25, to 5% of those aged 45 to 54.

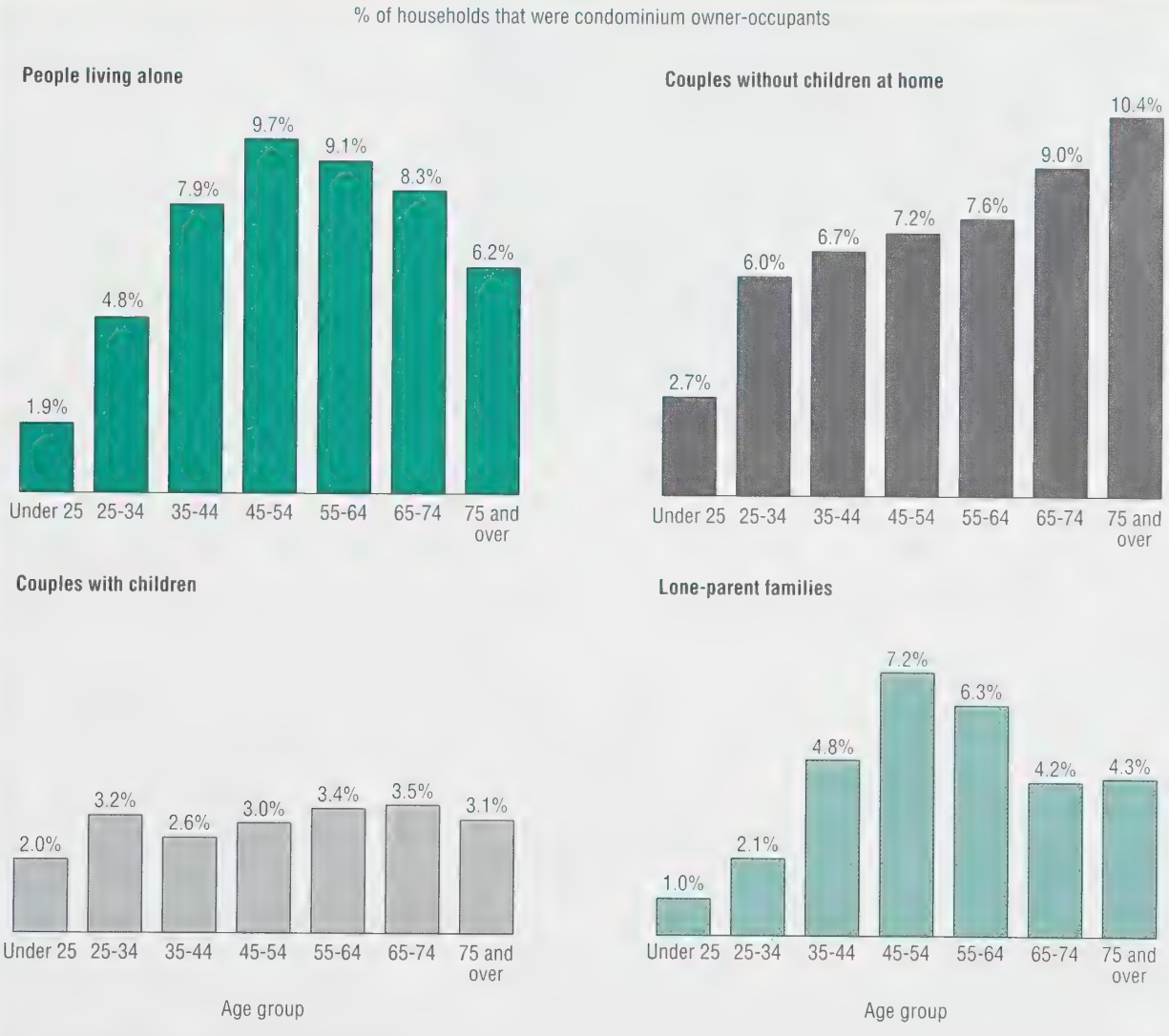
As older adults are more likely than younger adults to be living alone or in a couple relationship without children, it is not surprising that condominium ownership is more common among these types of households. In 1991, 7% of all couples without children at home and 7% of people living alone were in owner-occupied condominiums. In contrast, 5% of lone-parent families and 3% of couples with children were in this type of housing.

Most condominium owner-occupants were living alone or were in couples without children In 1991, two-thirds of condominium owner-occupants were living alone or were couples without children at home (33% each). Smaller proportions were couples with children (20%), lone-parent families (8%) and other types of households (6%).

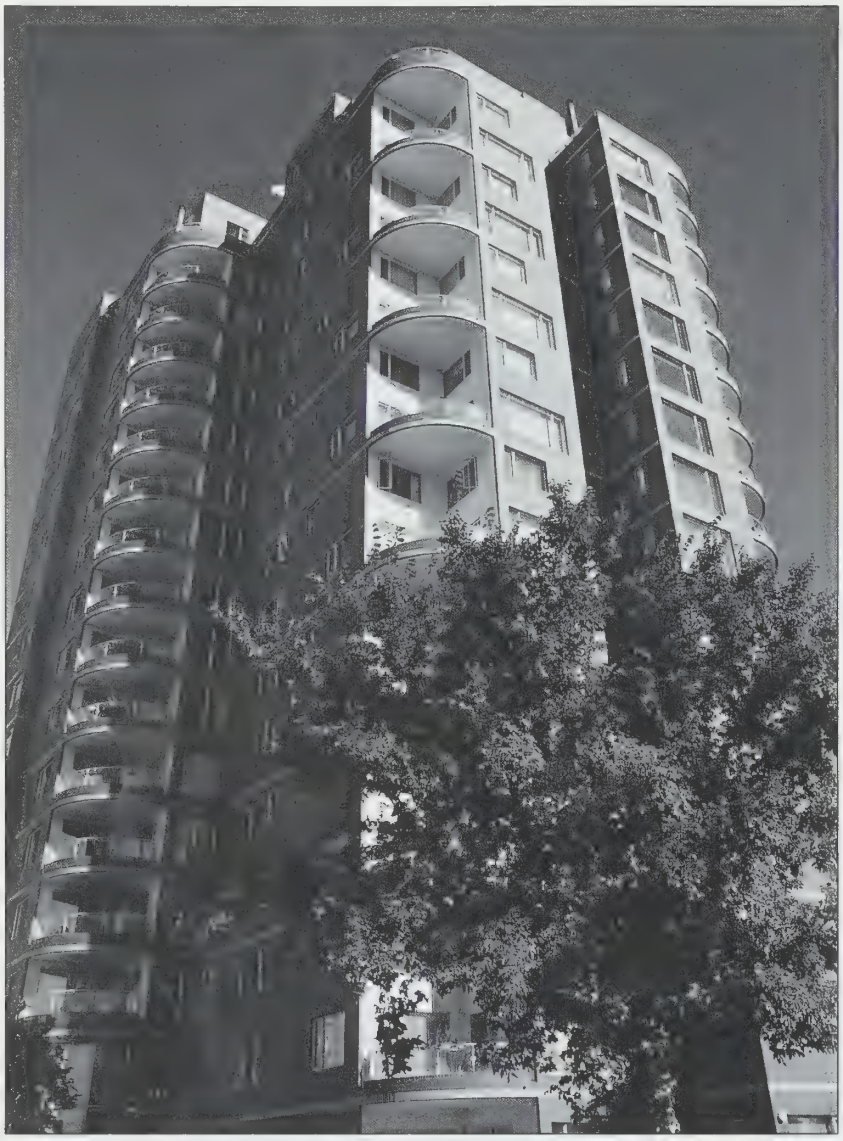
Over three-quarters (77%) of condominium owner-occupants who lived alone lived in an apartment, as did 66% of couples without children. In contrast, about one-half of couples with children (51%) and lone-parent families (49%) lived in row-house condominiums.

Incomes not as high overall as for other homeowners On average, condominium owner-occupants in Canada's 25 CMAs had lower household incomes than other homeowners, but much higher household incomes than renters. In 1990, the average household income of condominium owners was $56,300, compared with $63,400 for other homeowners, and $32,100 for renters.

In 1991, condominium ownership most common among people living alone and senior couples without children



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.



Seniors who lived in condominiums, however, tended to have higher incomes than other owners the same age. In 1990, condominium owners aged 65 to 74 had an average household income of $49,900, while other homeowners that age had an average household income of $46,100. Similarly, condominium owners aged 75 and over had an average household income of $43,800, compared with $36,900 for other homeowners that age.

Among all condominium owners, couples without children at home had the highest average household income ($68,200). This was higher than that of either couples with children ($66,800), lone-parent households ($46,900) or people living alone ($38,600). For those with higher incomes, the decision to choose condominium housing was probably based on features other than affordability, such as location or convenience.

Condominium units less expensive than other owner-occupied dwellings The average value of condominiums varied among different housing markets across Canada, as did the price differential between condominiums and other dwellings. Among the three largest CMAs in 1991, the highest average condominium value was in Toronto ($195,000), followed by Vancouver ($165,000) and Montréal ($138,000). In Toronto and Vancouver, these average values were almost $100,000 less than that of other owner-occupied dwellings. In contrast, the price differential in Montréal was only $7,000.

Couples without children at home tended to own the most expensive condominiums, with an estimated average value of $169,000 in 1991. This was followed by couples with children ($159,000), lone parents ($141,000), and people living alone ($139,000). Older condominium owner-occupants had the most expensive units. Couples aged 55 to 64 with or without children at home and, couples aged 65 to 74 without children lived in units with an average estimated value in excess of $185,000.

Economical to buy but just as expensive to maintain Condominium owner-occupants in Canadian CMAs spent slightly more than other homeowners to maintain their homes. Condominium owners' average monthly payments were $837 in 1991, 5% higher than those of other owners ($797). These major payments included the cost of electricity, fuel, water and other municipal services, monthly mortgage payments, property taxes and condominium fees. Condominium fees are a unique feature of this type of housing, covering costs that are shared with other condominium units. These costs can include the maintenance of common areas and building exteriors, as well as other services, and can result in relatively high condominium fees. Condominium fees, however, may not be viewed as an economic deterrent by those owners who have reached a point in their life cycle when they have little or no mortgage owing on their home.

Condominiums offer an affordable and low-maintenance alternative to traditional home ownership. In addition, condominiums are often conveniently located in urban centres and close to amenities. These features may be attractive to people living alone or in couples without children, particularly those who are seniors. As the population continues to age, condominium living is likely to become a more common phenomenon in Canada's housing market.

Oliver Lo is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

CST



EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using ***Canadian Social Trends*** *in the classroom*

Lesson plan for **"Fifteen Years of AIDS in Canada"**

Objectives

- ❑ To improve students' knowledge of Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS)
- ❑ To appreciate some of the issues and problems related to AIDS
- ❑ To work independently and cooperatively in small groups
- ❑ To reinforce basic research and inquiry skills

Method

1. Provide each student with a copy of the article "Fifteen Years of AIDS in Canada." Review terms such as "risk groups," "reporting delay," "incidence rate," "endemic" and "perinatal transmission."
2. Have the students read the article independently, selecting and recording key facts or ideas in point form.
3. Students should re-read the article and formulate questions suitable for a hypothetical study on several topics (eg., incidence rates for AIDS and HIV, the National AIDS Strategy, provincial and international comparisons, and risk groups and behaviours).
4. Organize students into groups. Each group selects a topic and prepares a final list of questions for their study. Groups then present their work to the class.
5. Follow-up activities could include preparing a presentation (or arranging for a guest speaker) to emphasize the consequences of risk-taking behaviours.

Using other resources

- ❑ Read "Causes of Death: How the Sexes Differ" in this issue and compare rates of death from HIV/AIDS with those from other causes.



Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using **CST** that you would like to share with other teachers? Send your ideas or comments to Harris Popplewell, Social Science Teacher at J.S. Woodsworth Secondary School, c/o Joel Yan, University Liaison Program, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. FAX (613) 951-4513. Internet: yanjoel@statcan.ca.



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FAMILY INDICATORS FOR CANADA



Statistics Canada collects a variety of information on Canadian families. Now you can find a selection of family indicators (including provincial indicators) on the World Wide Web, at http://www.statcan.ca/.

- *A **census family** refers to a now-married couple or a couple living common law (with or without never-married sons and/or daughters of either or both spouses/partners), or a lone parent of any marital status, with at least one never-married son or daughter living in the same dwelling.*
- *An **economic family** refers to a group of two or more persons who are living together in the same dwelling, and who are related by blood, marriage (including common-law relationships) or adoption.*
- *A **private household** is made up of a person or a group of persons (other than foreign residents) who occupy a private dwelling and do not have a usual place of residence elsewhere in Canada.*

TRENDS AND PROJECTIONS

	Observed		Projected[2]	
	1981	1991[1]	2001[3]	2011[3]
Census families				
Number of census families	6,324,975	7,356,170	8,728,300	9,885,600
Decade change – %		16.3	18.7	13.3
Number of husband-wife families	5,610,970	6,401,455	7,474,600	8,389,700
Decade change – %		14.1	16.8	12.2
% of total census families	88.7	87.0	85.6	84.9
Number of lone-parent census families	714,010	954,705	1,253,700	1,495,900
Decade change – %		33.7	31.3	19.3
% of total census families	11.3	13.0	14.4	15.1
• Male lone parents	124,180	168,240	241,500	299,600
• Decade change – %		35.5	43.5	24.1
• % of all lone parents	17.4	17.6	19.3	20.0
• Female lone parents	589,830	786,470	1,012,200	1,196,300
• Decade change – %		33.3	28.7	18.2
• % of all lone parents	82.6	82.4	80.7	80.0
Households				
Number of households with one or more census families	6,231,490	7,235,230	8,475,300	9,592,600
Decade change – %		16.1	17.1	13.2
Number of households with no census family	2,050,045	2,783,035	3,749,300	4,579,500
Decade change – %		35.8	34.7	22.1
Persons living alone	1,681,130	2,297,060	2,950,100	3,559,800
Decade change – %		36.6	28.4	20.7
% of total households	20.3	22.9	24.1	25.1
Average household size	2.9	2.7	2.6	2.5

[1] For the first time, the 1991 Census included non-permanent residents in its population coverage. Users should take this into consideration when comparing data from 1991 with those from previous censuses.
[2] Series "B" projection. See "**Projections of Households and Families for Canada, Provinces and Territories**," Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-522-XPB.
[3] Data for 2001 and 2011 are adjusted for net census undercoverage, while the 1991 data are not. The percentage change for 1991-2001 is therefore overstated.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 91-522-XPB, 92-904-XPB, 93-106-XPB, 93-311-XPB and 93-312-XPB.



CENSUS FAMILIES

	1981	1991
Number of census families	6,324,975	7,356,170
% of population in private dwellings living in census families	86.6	84.4
Average census family size	3.3	3.1
% of census families without children at home	31.8	35.1
% of census families headed by lone parents	11.3	13.0
% of census families that are common-law couples	5.6	9.9
% of census families that are empty-nest couples	17.2	20.8
Number of children (of any age) in census families	8,666,685	8,800,735
Average number of children per census family	1.4	1.2

Average time spent on unpaid work in 1992 by parents aged 25 to 44:

• Married fathers employed full time	3.2 hours/day
• Married mothers employed full time	4.8 hours/day
• Married mothers not employed	7.9 hours/day

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 89-544-XPB, 93-106-XPB, 93-312-XPB and 93-320-XPB.

ECONOMIC FAMILIES

% of economic families with both spouses employed in 1993	50.2
% of husband-wife economic families with both spouses employed in 1993	60.0
% of economic families with children under age 16 in which the female head or spouse was employed in 1994	61.4
% of economic families in 1994 with pre-school children (under age 6)	20.8
Unemployment rate in 1994	10.4
• Economic family members	10.1
• Unattached individuals (*living alone or not related to anyone in the dwelling*)	11.8
1994 economic family income	
• Average	$54,153
• Median *(half of families have incomes above and half below this amount)*	$48,091

Families who spent 60% or more of their total income on food, shelter and clothing (significantly more than the 40% spent by the average Canadian family) were considered to have low incomes.

% of economic families with low income in 1994	13.5
% of children under age 18 living in low-income economic families in 1994	19.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 13-207-XPB, 13-215-XPB, 13-569-XPB and 71-529-XPB.

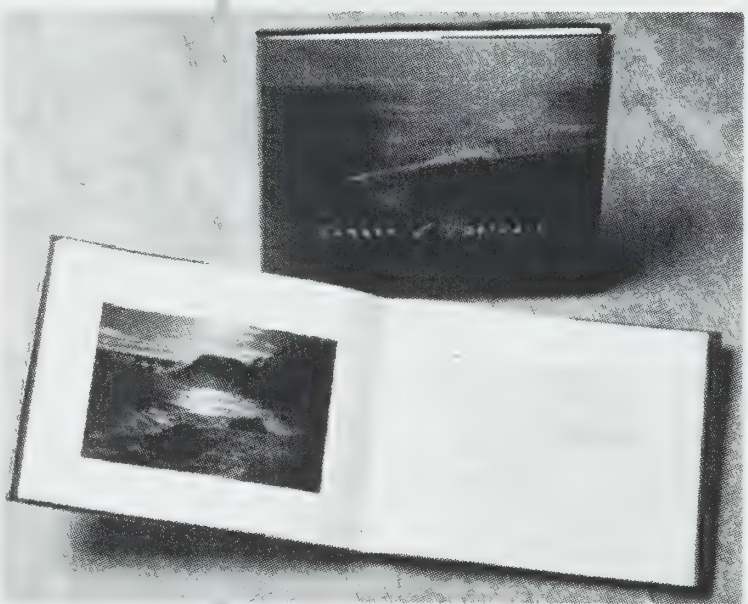
VITAL STATISTICS

	1981	1991
Live birth rate (per 1,000 population)	15.3	14.9
Average age of mother at first birth	24.8	26.5
Marriage rate (per 1,000 population)	7.8	6.4
Average age of women at first marriage	23.6	26.2
Average age of men at first marriage	25.7	28.2
Total marriages	190,082	172,251
Remarriages as a % of total marriages		
• Brides	17.9	22.6
• Grooms	20.0	23.4
Divorce rate (per 1,000 population)	2.8	2.7

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 82-553-XPB, 84-210-XPB, 84-212-XPB, 84-213-XPB, and unpublished data.

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SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	26,894.8	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0 PR	29,251.3 PR	29,606.1 PR
Annual growth (%)	1.3	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4 PR	1.1 PR	1.2 PR
Immigration[1]	152,413	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	227,860	215,652 P
Emigration[1]	40,978	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807 PR	45,949 PP
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.5	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4 P	*	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	*	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	N/A	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	12,819	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506
– goods sector (000s)	3,873	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653
– service sector (000s)	8,946	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852
Total unemployment (000s)	1,082	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422
Unemployment rate (%)	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5
Part-time employment (%)	15.2	15.0	15.3	16.3	16.7	17.2	17.0	16.6
Women's participation rate (%)	57.7	58.3	58.7	58.5	58.0	57.9	57.6	57.4
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	33.7	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	40,904	43,995	45,618	46,389	47,199	46,717	48,091	*
% of families with low income (1992 Base)	12.2	11.1	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.6	13.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.4	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.1	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,505.9 E
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	817.1	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 P	964.7 E	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,418	2,573	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356	3,539 P	3,647 E
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	5.5	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	39.5	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	36.3	*
– women	43.4	42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	40.0	*
% of deaths due to cancer – men	27.0	27.2	27.8	28.1	28.7	27.9	28.3	*
– women	26.4	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	*
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	*	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	865	908	970	1,056	1,077	1,072	1,037	*
– property	5,419	5,271	5,593	6,141	5,868	5,525	5,214	*
– homicide	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1993 $000,000)	179,817.8	187,892.3	196,762.4	205,481.1	211,778.7	211,432.6	*	*
– as a % of total expenditures	56.1	56.0	56.8	58.5	59.6	59.6	*	*
– as a % of GDP	24.7	25.2	26.9	29.5	30.2	29.7	*	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	2,910.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) – annual % change	+5.0	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.6	+2.2	+4.5	+2.2
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1
Urban housing starts	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526

– Not available * Not yet available P Preliminary data E Estimate m Figures as of March IR Revised intercensal estimates
PD Final postcensal estimates PP Preliminary postcensal estimates PR Updated postcensal estimates R Revised data F Final data

[1]For year ending June 30.

[2]Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

"Thirty-somethings" on the crest of the baby boom

On July 1, 1995, there were more than a half million people at every single age from 30 to 38. These "thirty-somethings" accounted for almost 18% of the total population. There were more 34-year-olds (545,000) than people of any other single year of age in Canada.

Population by single years of age, age groups and sex, for Canada, July 1, 1995, Statistics Canada, CANSIM Matrix 6367.

Impaired driving charges continue to decline

For the eleventh straight year, the rate of people charged with impaired operation of a motor vehicle, vessel or aircraft declined. The 1994 national rate of 384 people charged per 100,000 residents aged 16 and over was 47% below the 1984 rate. Although the vast majority of people charged were men, women accounted for 10% of those charged in 1994, up from 8% in 1984. People aged 25 to 39 made up one-half of those charged with impaired driving.

Juristat, vol. 15, no. 14, December 1995,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XPB.

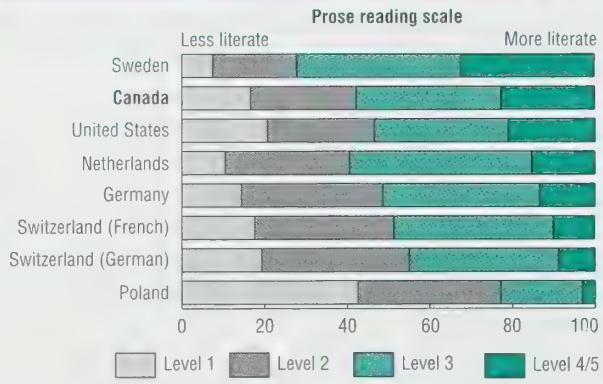
Canadians' literacy compares well with other countries, but still room for improvement

The 1994 International Adult Literacy Survey compared the results of literacy tests in seven major industrialized nations. Canada and the United States both had relatively high proportions of adults at the upper and lower ends of the literacy scale. Sweden had the strongest skill distribution.

The survey found strong links in all countries between literacy skills, employment and occupational status, and income. In Canada, four out of ten adults had reading skills which limited their ability to deal with much of the written material they encountered every day.

Literacy, Economy and Society,
Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

Sweden ranked first in literacy in 1994 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

Escaping abuse

On May 31, 1995, more than 2,300 women and 2,200 children were living in shelters for abused women and their children. According to the 1994-95 Transition Home Survey, eight out of ten of these women were there to escape abuse. Of these abuse cases, 70% involved physical abuse, typically from a current or former spouse or partner. In the preceding 12-month period, shelters across Canada recorded more than 85,000 admissions. On a typical day, the shelters received about 3,000 outside requests for services.

1994-95 Transition Home Survey,
Statistics Canada, Health Statistics Division.

After years of narrowing, male-female wage gap widens

In 1994, the average earnings of men who worked thirty hours or more per week were 3% higher than they were the previous year (after adjusting for inflation). This was the largest annual increase in eighteen years, and was partly due to a rebound in the high-wage, goods-producing industries.

For women, however, average annual earnings remained almost unchanged. For each dollar earned by men in 1994, women earned an average of 70 cents, down from 72 cents the year before. Men who worked full time earned an average of $40,700 in 1994, compared with $28,400 for women.

Earnings of men and women, 1994,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-217-XPB.

Technology use increases training in industry

Canadian manufacturing firms using advanced technologies have had to offer more formal training programs and invest more in human capital than low-tech firms. The number of technologies a plant uses – ranging from computer-assisted design and industrial robots to lasers for cutting and welding – is one of the most important factors in determining whether a manufacturing plant will train its workers. Although 70% of manufacturing plants that did not use technology offered formal training, the introduction of just one technology pushed the proportion to 90%. Virtually all firms using five or more technologies had implemented formal training programs for their employees.

Technology use in manufacturing plants is associated with high-quality jobs and tends to increase the skill requirements of workers. About 56% of plants using fabrication and assembly technologies required higher skill levels after adopting these technologies. Only 16% required lower skill levels.

Technology use, training and plant-specific knowledge in manufacturing establishments, Research Paper No. 86,
Statistics Canada, Micro Economic Studies and Analysis Division.



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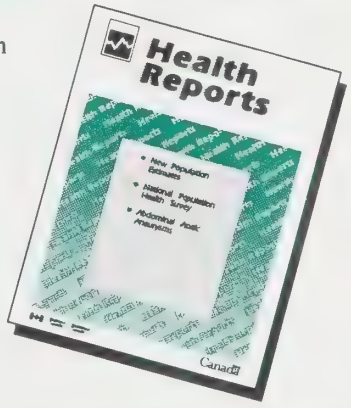
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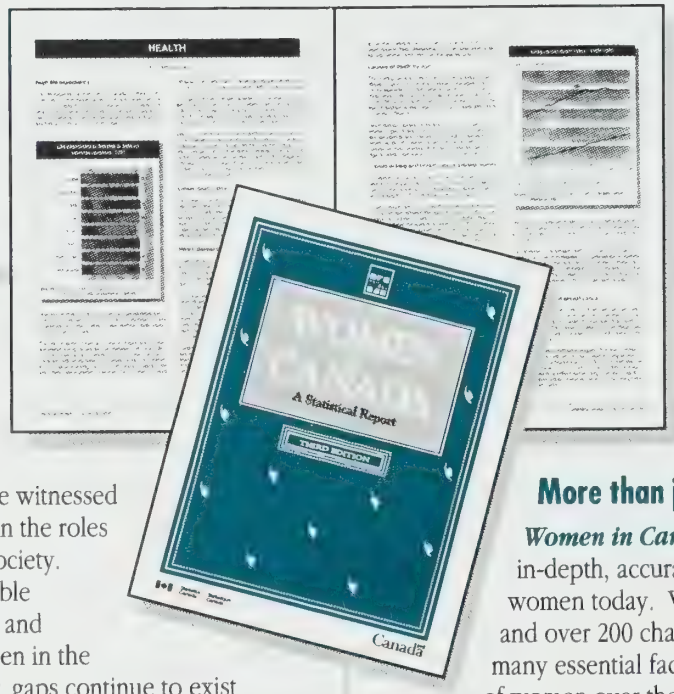
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ON OUR COVER:
Harvest Festival (c.1850) watercolour over graphite on wove paper, 20.3 x 25.6 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:
Born in London, England on January 6, 1791, painter, watercolourist and draughtsman, **William Bent Berczy** came to Upper Canada in 1794. He grew up in a family of artists and studied under his father, William Von Moll Berczy (The Woolsey Family – **CST**, Winter 1994). William Bent Berczy married amateur artist Louise-Amélie Panet in 1819, and spent a period of time in the Corps of Canadian Chasseurs and the Militia. He also served as a Member of the Upper Canada House of Assembly during the period 1828-1834. He died in Ste-Mélanie D'Ailleboust on December 9, 1873.

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briefly...

Projections of People with Work Disabilities, 1993 to 2016

People with work disabilities to account for 8% of the population aged 15 to 64 by 2016 People with work disabilities comprise one of the four designated groups under the *Employment Equity Act*. According to Statistics Canada's medium-growth projections of people with disabilities,[1] if current age-specific rates of disability continue, this population is expected to reach 2 million by 2016, up from 1.4 million in 1993. As a proportion of the working-age population, those with a disability will grow to 8% by 2016, from 7% in 1993.

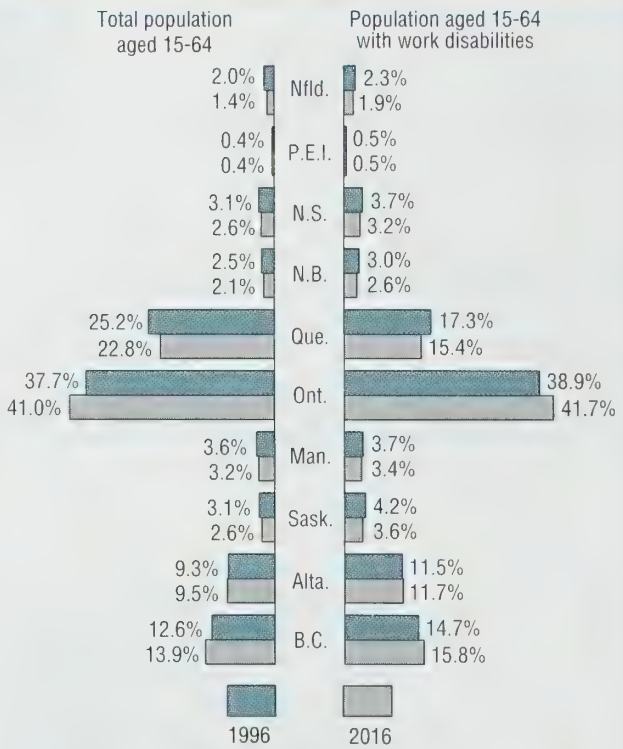
Number of people with work disabilities growing at a faster rate... The growth rate of people with work disabilities is expected to be higher than that of the population without disabilities. The average annual growth rates of people with work disabilities is projected to be 2% between 1996 and 2001, and 0.8% between 2011 and 2016. In comparison, the average growth rates for people without disabilities for the two periods are projected to be 1.4% and 0.5%, respectively.

The projected number of people with work disabilities is the result of the interaction between two factors: the projected general population and age-specific disability prevalence rates. The projected population is based on the 1993 preliminary estimates adjusted for net census undercoverage, non-permanent residents and returning Canadians. Disability prevalence rates were estimated from data in the 1991 Health and Activity Limitation Survey (HALS) and were assumed to be the same throughout the projection period.

• For more information, see **Projections of Persons with Disabilities (Limited At Work/Perception), Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1993-2016**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-538-XPE. Also available are **Projections of Population with Aboriginal Ancestry, Canada, Provinces/Regions and Territories, 1991-2016**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-539-XPE, and **Projections of Visible Minority Population Groups, Canada, Provinces and Regions, 1991-2016**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-541-XPE. These publications are available from your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre or call 1-800-267-6677.

...due to population aging The likelihood of having a work disability is higher among older people. Thus, population aging will result in older people accounting for a growing share of the working-age population with disabilities. By 2016, 60% of people with work disabilities will be aged 45 to 64, up from 48% in 1996.

By 2016, Ontario and British Columbia expected to have larger share of population with work disabilities



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-538-XPE.

[1] The projections of the population with work disabilities include people aged 15 to 64 who indicated that they were limited in the kind or amount of work they perform, due to a long-term physical condition or health problem.

CANADA'S POPULATION
CHARTING INTO THE 21ST CENTURY

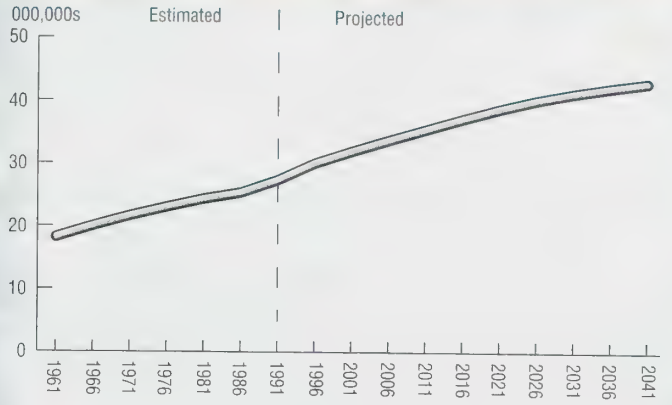
by Tina Chui



CHANGES IN THE SIZE AND AGE STRUCTURE OF Canada's population result from shifts in fertility, mortality and migration patterns. These changes can have immediate and long-term consequences for society, affecting the demand for education, housing and health-care services, and the supply of workers to the labour force. Population projections play an important role in facilitating social and economic planning.

Canada's demographic future will likely be characterized by slow population growth and an aging population, largely due to low fertility and the aging of the baby boom generation. In 1995, Canada's population was estimated at 29.6 million, an increase of 9.6 million since 1966. Based on a medium-growth scenario, the population is projected to increase to 37 million by 2016.

Population growth: continuous, but slow in the coming decades



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 91-520-XPB and 93-310-XPB.

The rate of population growth is expected to slow down. The annual growth rate will drop to 0.9% by 2016, from 1.4% in 1993. The decline of population growth is mainly due to the slowing down of natural increase (the difference between births and deaths). International migration will become increasingly important as the contribution of natural increase declines. By 2030, natural increase is expected to reach zero and from then on, immigration will be the sole source of population growth.

In addition to slow population growth, population aging will continue. The median age of the population (the point in the age distribution where half of the population is older and the other half is younger) is expected to increase to 40.4 years by 2016, from 33.9 years in 1993.

The baby boom Since the Second World War, the most important demographic development in Canada was the increase in fertility that took place roughly during the period 1946 to 1966.[1] This period has become known as the baby boom era. During the height of the baby boom in 1959, 473,700 babies were born, representing a 59% increase since the beginning of the boom in 1946.

The baby boom era, however, was only a temporary deviation in a long-term decline in fertility. In the late 1960s, Canada's fertility rate returned to its downward path. In 1966, women of childbearing age had an average of 2.8 births, compared with 3.9 births in 1959. Fertility continued to drop to below the replacement level of 2.1 births in 1972. Since then, fertility has remained fairly stable at around 1.7 births per woman.

Canadians are living longer As they have in other industrial countries, mortality rates in Canada have declined considerably due to improved quality of life and health care. In 1993, there were 7.1 deaths per 1,000 people, down from 9.9 in 1946. The declining mortality rate has resulted in increased life expectancy for Canadians. In 1993, a baby boy was expected to live to age 75 and a baby girl to age 81. This compared with 66.3 and 70.8 years for a baby boy and baby girl, respectively, in 1951.

Natural increase expected to fall to zero around 2030 Natural increase is a major determinant of population growth. In 1960, 88% of the population growth (339,300 people) was attributable to natural increase. With the onset of the "baby bust," however, natural increase dropped to 253,700 in 1966. The long-term trend of natural growth has been downward. If fertility remains at the current level of 1.7 births per woman, natural growth will decline to 147,100 in the year 2001. As boomers age, the number of deaths will increase. By 2030, natural increase is anticipated to fall to zero, and subsequently, deaths could exceed births.

Immigration and population growth International migration[2] is another potential source of population growth. Immigration is by far the most important component of international migration. The contribution of immigrants to Canada's population growth has fluctuated over the years, reflecting changes in the annual immigration levels set by government.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Population projections

Population projections play an important role in the strategic decision-making process of business, professionals, planners, educators or anyone concerned about the size and characteristics of the population. Statistics Canada's population projections routinely provide possible scenarios of the population process. The most recent projections used as their base, the 1993 preliminary population estimates adjusted for net census undercoverage and included two new components: non-permanent residents and returning Canadians.

Three growth scenarios were used in the projections:

- *High-growth scenario* – assumes an increase in fertility to 1.9 children per woman by 2016; life expectancies at birth of 81.0 and 86.0 years in 2016 for men and women, respectively; and an annual immigration level of 330,000 by 2005.
- *Medium-growth scenario* (reported throughout this article) – generally reflects the continuation of current trends: a constant fertility of 1.7 births per woman; life expectancies at 78.5 and 84.0 years by 2016 for men and women, respectively; and an annual immigration level of 250,000.
- *Low-growth scenario* – fertility is assumed to decline to 1.5 births per woman; life expectancies are 77.0 and 83.0 years for men and women, respectively; and the annual immigration level is assumed to decline to 150,000 by 2005.

For all projections, emigration is assumed to increase from 46,800 in 1993 to between 49,600 and 58,300 by 2016. Non-permanent residents remain at 149,600 after 1994.[1] Returning Canadians are projected to increase from 21,800 in 1993 to 25,600 by 2016.

[1] Since the preparation of these projections, the estimates of non-permanent residents were revised. The estimate for 1995 was 258,500.

• For more information, see **Population Projections for Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1993-2016**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-520-XPB. Also, for information on the projections of households, see **Projections of Households and Families for Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1994-2016**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-522-XPB.

However, the role of immigration has become increasingly important in the face of declining natural increase.

In 1992, 216,000 people were added to Canada's population through net international migration; this number decreased slightly to 214,200 in 1993. In these two years, net migration actually surpassed natural increase (206,100 in 1992 and 190,600 in 1993). Although net international migration dropped to 184,800 in 1995, its contribution to overall population growth was about the same as that of natural increase (170,000).

As natural increase is expected to decline in the future, net migration will play an even more important role in population growth. If immigration targets remain at the recent annual level of 250,000 people, the contribution of net migration will continue to surpass that of natural increase. By 2030, when natural increase is projected to reach zero, immigration will be Canada's only source of population growth.

Low fertility and mortality result in an aging population[3] The age structure of a population is largely determined by its fertility and mortality levels. Over the years, the combined effects of low fertility and mortality levels in Canada have resulted in an age structure with a larger proportion of older and a smaller proportion of younger people.

In 1961, nearly four in ten people were under age 18, reflecting high fertility levels during the baby boom era. However, because of low fertility levels since the late 1960s, young people accounted for just one in four people (24%) in 1995. At the same time, seniors accounted for 12% of the population, compared with 8% in 1961.

This aging of the population is expected to continue because of improved longevity and the aging of the baby boom generation. By 2016, the number of seniors is expected to grow to nearly 6 million, accounting for 16% of the population. By 2041, the number of seniors will have tripled its present level to nearly 10 million. By then, almost one in four people (23%) will be aged 65 and over.

Because life expectancy for men is catching up with that for women, the imbalance in the sex ratio among seniors will decrease. In 1991, there were 81.6 men per 100 women aged 65 to 74, and 60.2 men per 100 women 75 years and over. These ratios will increase to 90.7 and 64.1 for the two age groups by 2016.

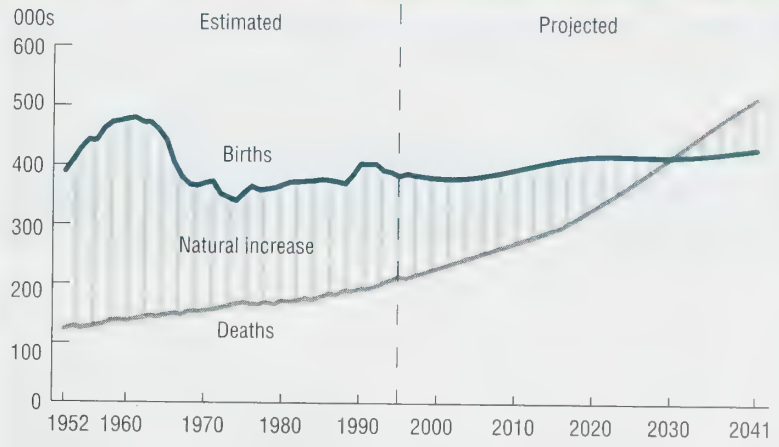
Population aging holds significant socio-economic implications for society. If people continue to retire in their mid-sixties, the ratio of pensioners to workers will continue to increase. The old-age dependency ratio between seniors and working-age people is expected to increase to 24.9 by 2016, from 18.6 in 1994. One effect of the increasing ratio of pensioners to workers will be the

[1] See "Canadian Fertility, 1951 to 1993: From Boom to Bust to Stability?" **Canadian Social Trends**, Winter 1995.

[2] Net international migration includes all landed immigrants and returning Canadians minus the number of people who leave Canada (emigrants). The number is also adjusted for non-permanent residents.

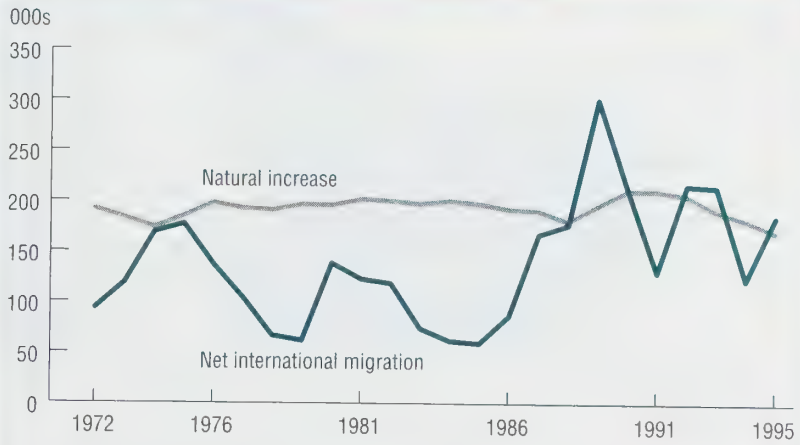
[3] See "Population Aging: Baby Boomers Into the 21st Century," **Canadian Social Trends**, Summer 1993.

Deaths expected to exceed births by year 2030 CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 91-213-XPB and 91-520-XPB.

Net international migration: fluctuated, but increased since mid-1980s CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-213-XPB.

increased cost of maintaining public pension plans.[4]

An aging population will also result in an increase of medical-care needs and will raise the costs of providing that care. In particular, the costs of treating diseases common among older people, such as heart disease, stroke and cancer, will increase. With improved health care, people will live longer but will be more likely to suffer from chronic illnesses which require long-term care.

It is also true, however, that the coming generation of seniors will generally be healthier than previous generations. In addition, higher labour force participation among men and women will result in increased financial independence. Upon retirement, seniors' contribution to society will shift from paid to unpaid work.

More seniors today, particularly senior women, are living alone. A growing senior population raises issues such as housing affordability and design. Goods and services that will enable older people to maintain independent lifestyles will become increasingly important.

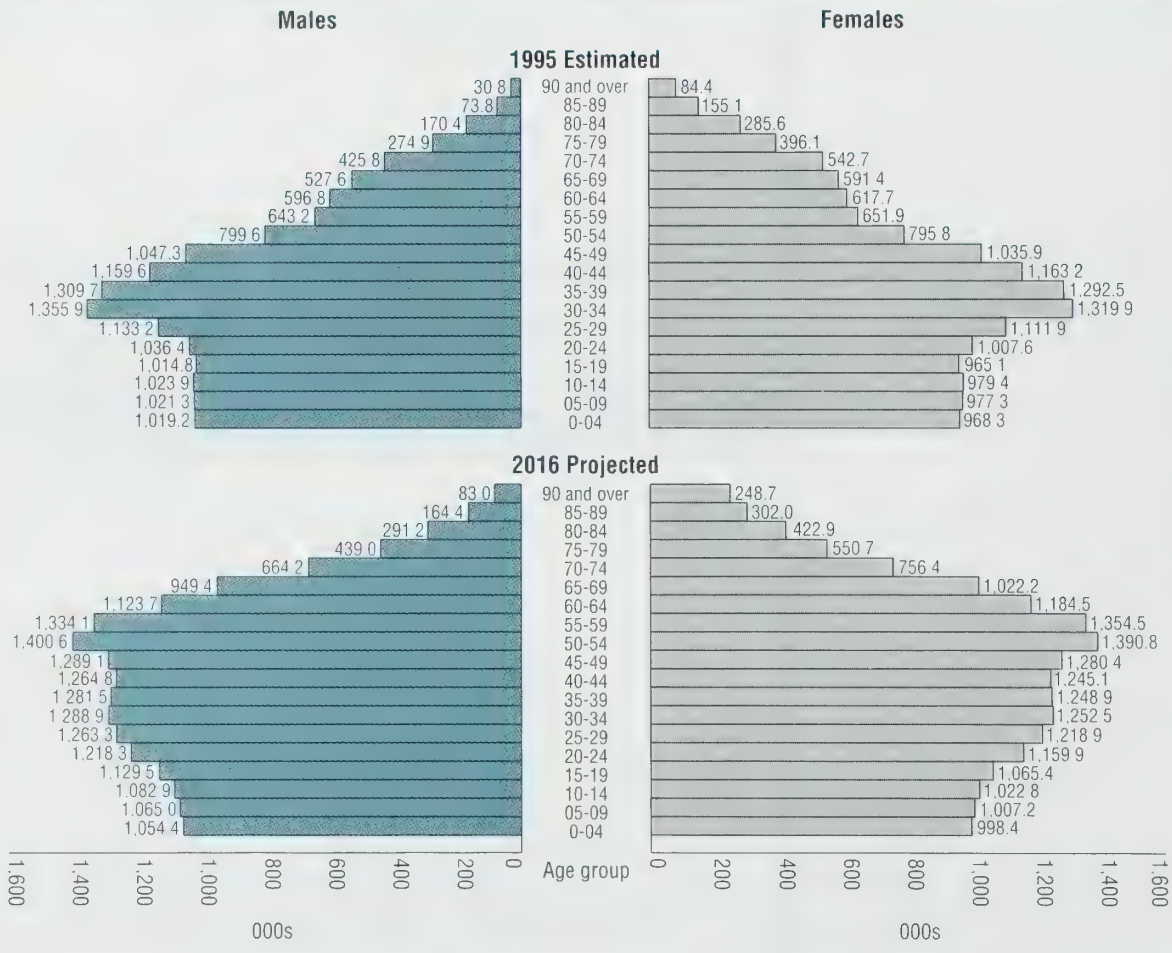
People under age 18: a growing number, but a declining proportion Because of the large number of children born to the baby boom generation, the number of people under age 18 increased steadily to 7.2 million in 1995, from 6.7 million in 1986. If fertility remains at the current level, the size of this group is expected to grow to 7.5 million by 2016, and to 8.1 million by 2041.

However, this group will make up an increasingly smaller proportion of the total population. People under age 18 accounted for 24% of the total population in 1995. This proportion is expected to drop to 20% by 2016, and to 19% by 2041. Nevertheless, the steady increase of the school-age population will ensure a continued demand for primary and secondary education, and for child-care facilities.

Slow, but continuous growth of the young adult population The number of young adults aged 18 to 24 peaked at 3.5 million in 1982 when the majority of the baby boomers reached adulthood. This population, however, is expected to drop to 2.8 million by 1996, but will increase again to 3.3 million by 2016, and to 3.5 million by 2041.

Since it is at this age people pursue postsecondary studies, the demand for

Canada's population, 1995 and 2016



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue nos. 91-213-XPB and 91-520-XPB.

this level of education will likely continue. Postsecondary education is currently undergoing funding and program review, and youth unemployment remains high. Therefore, improving access to higher education, and training an efficient and competitive work force for the next century are among the priorities facing policy makers.

Smaller proportion of the population will be of working age Generally, people start to enter the labour force at around age 18 and retire in their 60s. The size of the working-age population increased significantly in the late 1960s as the boomers reached working-age. In 1971, 12.5 million people were aged 18 to 64. This number increased to 15.6 million in 1981 and to 18.9 million in 1995. The working-age population is expected to continue to grow. By 2001, 20.4 million people will be of working-age, and the number will increase gradually to 23.7 million by 2016, and 25.1 million by 2041.

As a proportion of the total population, however, the working-age group will likely decrease as boomers start to reach retirement age around 2010. In 1971, 57% of the population were of working-age. The proportion increased to 64% in 1995. By 2011, 65% of the population will be of working-age. The proportion will then start to decline to 64% in 2016, and to 59% in 2041.

Older work force In the next twenty years, the baby boomers will be in their 40s and 50s, and thus, result in an aging work force. Almost one-third (32%) of working-age people were in the age range 45 to 64 in 1994. This proportion is expected to increase to 44% by 2016.

There are many issues related to an aging work force. Older workers are more experienced and less likely to change career, and therefore, are a more stable work force. However, the careers of many older workers may plateau as competition for more senior positions increases. This, in turn, may block the career advancement of younger workers.

Furthermore, an aging population will also result in more people with work disabilities. According to Statistics Canada's special projections of people with disabilities, 60% of people with work disabilities will be aged 45 to 64 by 2016, up from 46% in 1993.

Challenges for a greying work force are many. Older workers need to continue to update their skills in an economy increasingly based on technology, knowledge and information. Employers may need to become more innovative in managing their human resources. This could include offering part-time work to employees before retirement, and providing early retirement incentives which would create more opportunities for younger workers.

Population trends underlie many important policy concerns As the twenty-first century approaches, there are many issues facing policy makers and the public at large. For instance, what can be done to keep the economy viable with slow population growth and an aging population? How can we maintain a smaller but competitive and efficient labour force? How can we provide quality health care in response to increasing demands? And how can we minimize regional disparity and respond to the population changes faced by different regions in Canada? Population projections are useful tools that will assist decision-makers in both the public and private sectors in addressing these and other related issues.

[4] See "Government Sponsored Income Security Programs for Seniors: Canada and Quebec Pension Plans," **Canadian Social Trends**, Spring 1996.

• This article was adapted from **Population Projections for Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1993-2016**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-520-XPB.

Tina Chui is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends**.

• See this issue's **Educator's Notebook** for a suggested lesson plan based on this article.

CST

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Non-family households to increase

Changing demographics also have implications for the household. The number of households is expected to reach 15.1 million by 2016, up from 10.3 million in 1991. Household growth results from a combination of factors, such as changes in the age at which people form a household, increasing divorce rates, fewer marriages, and the growing incidence of solo living. Non-family households[1] are projected to increase to 33% by 2016, from 29% of all households in 1991, while family households will drop to 67% from 71%.

Household size is also expected to drop to an average of 2.5 people by 2016, from 2.7 in 1991. This decline is mainly due to the growing number of non-family households, those headed by lone parents, and an on-going decline of multi-family households.

[1] Non-family households consist mainly of people living alone or unrelated people sharing a dwelling.

RETIREMENT IN THE 90s

RETIRED MEN IN CANADA

by Manon Monette



For many people, retirement is no longer clearly defined in terms of age, number of years of service or pension eligibility. There are many avenues to retirement, as well as ages chosen to make this transition in life. Some people retire simply because they are ready to do so, while others take advantage of early retirement incentives. Still others retire for health reasons or because they have lost their job.

At the same time, some people work for pay well beyond the traditional retirement age, either out of personal preference or for financial reasons. And for many, retirement does not mean leaving the work force for good – it is often a more gradual transition.

Because older men and women have had very different labour force experiences, it is difficult to compare their retirement behaviour. It also appears that many women define retirement in different terms than men do. Therefore, the main part of this article focuses on retired men.

Almost one-half of Canadian men aged 55 and over are retired According to the 1994 General Social Survey, 59% of men aged 55 and over were retired. Not surprisingly, the likelihood of being retired increased with age. For example, in 1994, 14% of men aged 55 to 59 were retired. This tripled to 45% of men aged 60 to 64, and 78% of men aged 65 to 69. The prevalence of retirement levelled off among men in their 70s, moving from 87% of those in their early 70s to 92% of those aged 80 and over.

Shifts in these rates were slight between 1989 and 1994. The largest difference was among men in their 70s. For example, the proportion of men aged 75 to 79 who were retired dropped to 89% in 1994, from 95% in 1989.

Retirement age has moved away from 65 In 1994, the average retirement age, calculated across all men who were retired at the time of the survey, was 61.4 years. While this average[1] was virtually unchanged since 1989, there was a shift away from the 65-year mark. In 1994, just 10% of men had retired at the traditional age of 65, down from 19% in 1989.

The shift was towards both younger and older retirement ages. In 1994, 21% of all retired men had left the work force between the ages of 55 and 59, up from 17% in 1989 for the same age group. Also, the proportion who retired after age 65 rose to 25% from 21%.

Retirement age related to reasons for retiring One-quarter of retired men said they left the work force because of their health. These men tended to retire at a younger than average age (59.6 years). Personal choice was an equally important reason for retirement among men (24%). These men retired, on average, at age 61.6. The introduction of more flexibility in retirement age in some public and private pension plans has contributed to retirement before age 65.

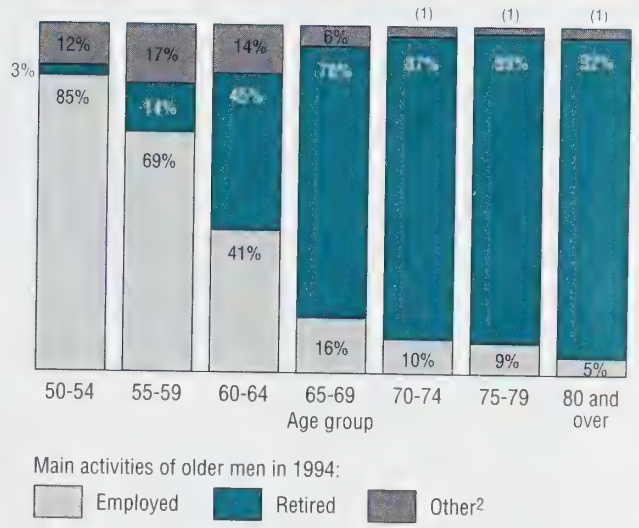
Mandatory retirement policies were cited by 16% of retired men. This proportion was about half of what it was in 1989. As expected, men pushed from the work world through mandatory retirement policies tended to be older on average (63.1 years) than men who retired for other reasons.

Early retirement incentives accounted for 10% of men's retirements. Many public and private sector organizations have used early retirement packages as one of the ways to downsize their work force. Men who retired because of early retirement incentives did so at an average age of 59.3.

One in ten retired men left the labour force because of unemployment. In 1994, the average retirement age for men who had retired while unemployed was 62.1 years. Another 11% of men retired because "they felt old enough," and did so the latest, at an average age of 64.4.

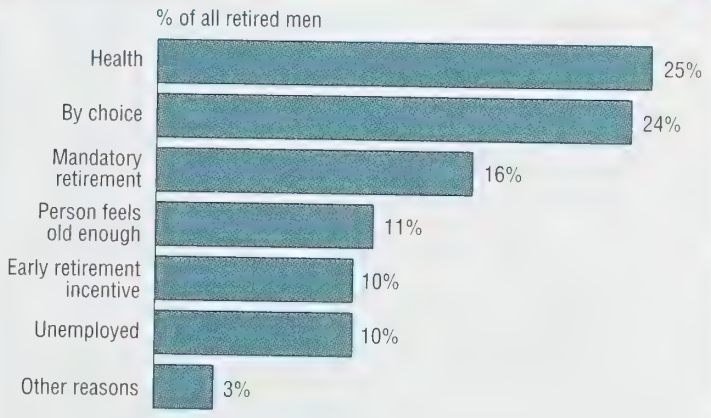
[1] The retirement age distribution includes all retirees, regardless of how long they have been retired. Therefore, comparisons of the retired population are affected by those who have left the scope of the survey by dying or going into an institution, as well as by people who retired in recent years.

Many men retired before the traditional retirement age of 65



[1] Estimate too small to be released.
[2] Other activities include looking for a job and keeping house.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 General Social Survey.

Health and personal choice leading reasons why men retire



Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 General Social Survey.

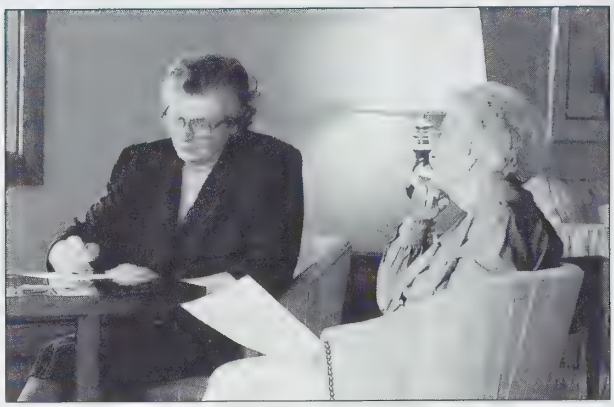
Retirement concept less clear for women

Although the road to retirement for today's younger women could be expected to resemble that of men in many ways, most senior women have not had as strong an attachment to the paid labour force. If retirement is generally understood as leaving a life of working for pay, the criteria for determining if a man is retired are adequate. People are considered to be "retired" if they worked at a job at any time in the past and if they describe their main activity as "retired."

These criteria produce a less clear picture of women's retirement. Undoubtedly, many older women have made a transition from working for pay to retirement. However, some women may define their retirement in different terms. Many older women who call themselves retired last worked for pay before their children were born. In addition, some women base their perception of their retired status on transitions in their life that are unrelated to their own employment. These include, for example, their husband's retirement or eligibility for a pension cheque.

Many elderly women described themselves as retired even though women that age tended not to work outside the home. Women's participation in the labour force doubled since the 1950s. Over the forty-year period 1953 to 1993, for example, women's participation in the labour force moved to 58% from 23%. In comparison, the proportion of men in the labour force was 83% in 1953, but declined to 73% in 1993. In spite of these low historical rates of labour force participation, 46% of women aged 80 and over said they were retired.

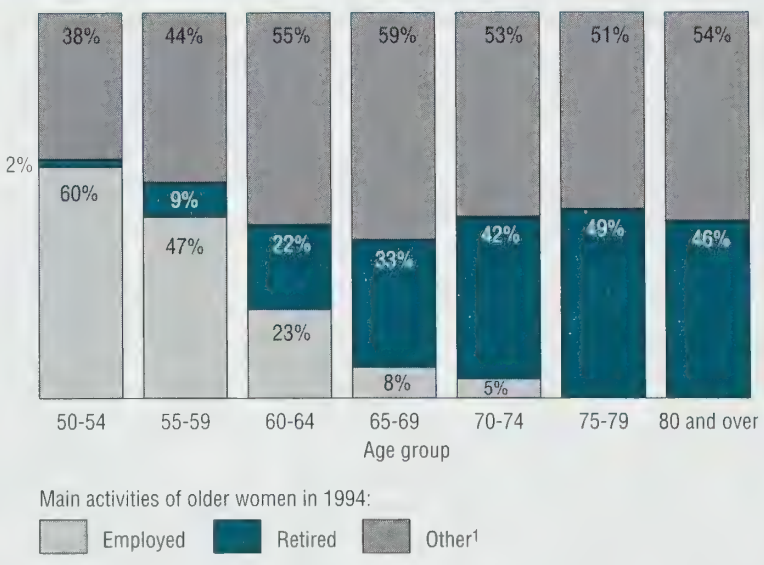
Women who reported being retired had an average age of 58.5 at the time of their retirement. The larger proportion of women than men who retired for reasons not related to the labour market is associated with younger average retirement ages. Again, this suggests a broader interpretation of "retirement" among women. For example, 13% of women said they retired for family reasons: raising children or caring for a sick spouse or other relative. Very few men reported these reasons. Women who retired for family reasons did so at a very young average age (48), compared with other retired people.



Some of these women were still in their childbearing years and left the work force to raise children.

The fact that women are generally younger than their husbands, coupled with the tendency for spouses to retire at the same time, also contributes to a lower average retirement age among women. For example, the 7% of women who said they retired because their spouse retired had an average retirement age of 59.2. For some of these women, this entailed leaving their employment at the same time as their spouse. For others, however, it may have meant making a role shift from homemaker to a partner in retirement.

Smaller proportion of older women employed CST



[1] Other activities include looking for a job and keeping house.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 General Social Survey.



About six out of ten retired men have a pension plan Among retired men, 59% had a pension plan from a former employer upon retirement. Those who received retirement or pension plan benefits tended to retire earlier than those who did not. Seventy percent retired before age 65. In comparison, 59% of men without pension benefits retired before age 65.

In the past few years, a number of factors have contributed to earlier retirements among men. These include government and corporate downsizing in the 1990s, the fact that more people have pension plans, and the greater flexibility in these plans. On the other hand, some seniors who wanted to continue working have fought mandatory retirement. Furthermore, some of those concerned with the rising cost of supporting pension plans have proposed raising the age requirements for receiving benefits. Many workers will still want to retire when they can. However, many skilled older people willingly remain in the workplace, whether or not they need the money. This may soften the effect that a rapidly aging society will have on the supply of labour.

• For more information, see **Canada's Changing Retirement Patterns, Findings from the General Social Survey**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-546-XPE.

Manon Monette is an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

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RETIREMENT IN THE 90s

GOING BACK TO WORK

by Manon Monette



Many people who have retired still have the ability and the desire to hold down a job. According to the 1994 General Social Survey, 13% of people aged 50 and over who had ever retired went back to work afterwards. And just as there were many circumstances associated with their leaving the work force, there were a variety of reasons for returning to work.

In 1994, 16% of men who had ever retired returned to the labour force at some time after their first retirement. Overall, men made up 71% of people who had left retirement to take a job. Only 8% of women who had been retired went back to work for pay. A similar proportion of men (61%) and women (55%) who returned to work had had a job five years previous to the survey. In contrast, smaller proportions of all retired men (26%), and women in particular (16%), worked five years earlier. This indicates that women who ever returned to work were more likely to have retired from recent employment.

As expected, returnees tended to have retired at an earlier average age (57.9) than other retired people (60.6). In addition, the likelihood of ever having returned to work was greatest among younger retirees. For example, 26% of those aged 55 to 59 in 1994 had returned to work at some time, compared with only 8% of those aged 70 and over in 1994.

People who took an early retirement incentive were most likely to return to the work force (27%), compared with people who retired for other reasons. Fifteen percent of people who retired because of job loss returned, followed by 14% who felt old enough and 13% whose choice it was to retire. In contrast, those who left the work force because of health problems, family reasons, a partner retiring or mandatory retirement were least likely to return to paid work. Among those citing health problems, only 5% returned.

Many reasons for returning to paid work Among first-time retirees who returned to work, 25% returned for financial reasons. Other reasons, however, were also common: 20% returned to work to occupy their spare time, 21% returned because they wanted to, and 34% had other reasons. The feeling they were too young to retire and decisions to live in a different location were common among these other reasons.

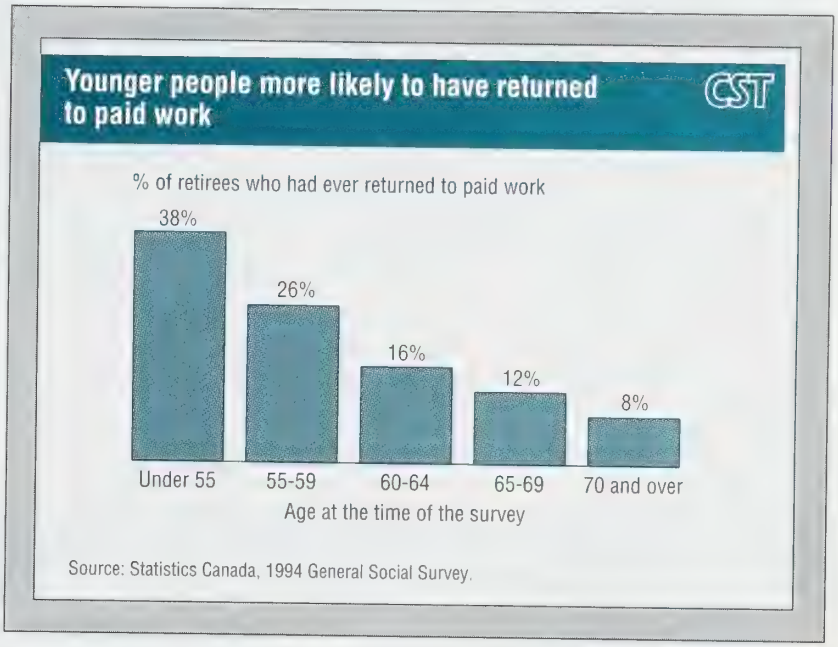
Retirees in larger households more likely to return to paid work Only 9% of retirees living alone returned to work, compared with 13% of people in two-person households (mainly couples), and 19% of those in households with three or more people. People in these larger households were most likely to cite financial reasons (45%) for returning to work. In contrast, 24% of those living alone and 17% of those in couples came out of retirement for financial reasons. Among people who lived alone, the most common reason for returning to work was to occupy their spare time (32%).

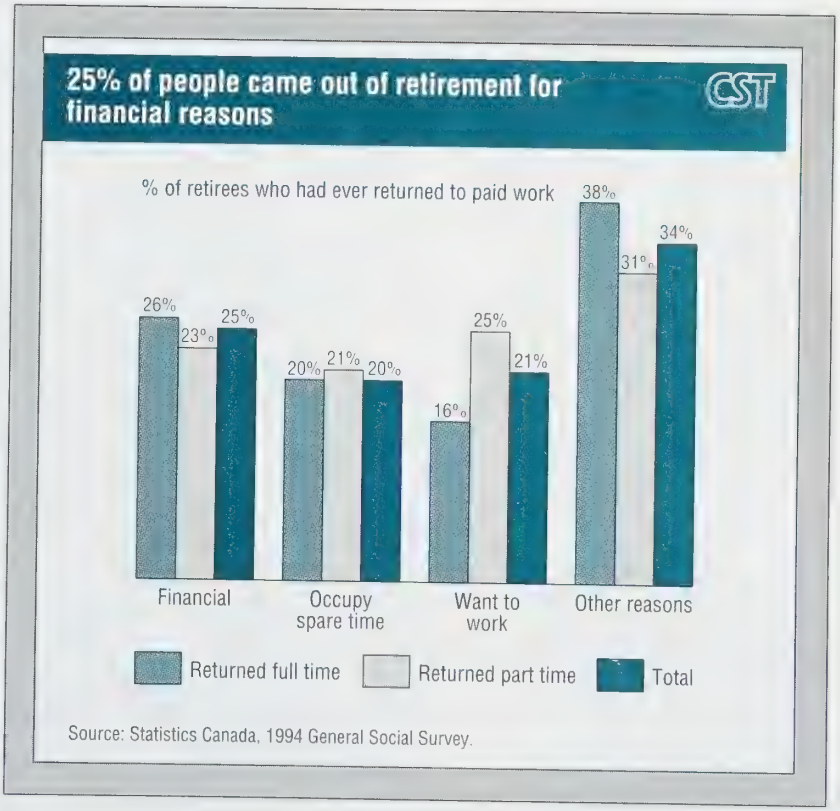
Living with a spouse who worked was also related to the likelihood of returning to paid work. Almost one-half (48%) of former retirees who were working at the time of the survey had a spouse or partner whose main activity during the past year was paid work. Once again, these people tended to be younger than other retirees.

Retirees with higher education most likely to return to paid work... Among university-educated retirees, 23% had returned to work. In contrast, only 13% of retired people with high school diplomas or postsecondary, non-university educations returned. People with less than a high school diploma were least likely to have returned to work (9%). The relationship between higher education and the likelihood of having returned to paid work held true among all age groups.

...as are those in managerial and professional occupations Retirees who return to work tend also to have retired from managerial and professional occupations. People in these occupational groups accounted for about one-third (34%) of those returning to work, but only 25% of those who remained in retirement. These people likely had skills that gave them access to a wide variety of post-retirement jobs, including consulting and contract work.

Part-time and temporary jobs common Although only 10% of retirees had part-time jobs before retiring, 59% of those who returned to work took part-time employment. Among women,





the rate of part-time employment moved to 68% for those who returned to work, from 20% before retirement. Part-time work was rare among men before they retired (5%), but rose to 51% among those returning to work.

Many jobs taken after retirement involved temporary work, either with a contract (21% of returnees) or without (17%). The remaining 62% of returning retirees held jobs with an indefinite duration. As was the case for part-time work, women (45%) were more likely than men (36%) to take temporary work.

Self-employment was also common among people returning to the workplace. Although few were self-employed before retirement (about 13% of all retirees), many wage earners made a move to self-employment when they returned to the labour force (29% of former wage earners).

Those who return to paid work do so soon after retirement On average, retirees who returned to work did so 1.5 years after their initial retirement. One-half went back to work within one year, while another 30% returned after one to two years. Those who returned within a year tended to work full time (57%) and tended to be self-employed (65%). In contrast, 71% of those who went back to work after two years worked part time, and 81% were wage earners.

For some, returning to work may have been part of an overall career plan. For example, many people may choose to take a pension as soon as they are eligible and then start a new career or continue their old one as a contract worker.

Employment remains an important part of the lives of many "retirees" The people who did not stay retired were most likely to be men, relatively young and well-educated. They also tended to come from managerial and professional occupations. Most received retirement pension benefits from their previous employer, and financial reasons for returning to work were not foremost. These people either liked to work or needed a way to spend their spare time.

The tendency to return to work underlines the importance of paid work in the lives of older men. The non-standard types of work that characterize the return to the workplace provide many people with a transitional period. Many men make a major adjustment from decades of working full time to suddenly having a considerable amount of free time on their hands. In contrast, many older women have not had to make this kind of adjustment. As younger women develop life-long attachments to the work world similar to men's, along with pension entitlements, it is possible that their retirement patterns will converge with those of men.

• For more information, see **Canada's Changing Retirement Patterns, Findings from the General Social Survey**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-546-XPE.

Manon Monette is an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

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GENERAL SOCIAL SURVEY



Statistics Canada's General Social Survey (GSS) gathers data on the demographic and social characteristics of Canadians. The 1994 GSS focused on education, work and retirement. The survey targeted people aged 15 and over living in Canada, except for residents of the Yukon and Northwest Territories, and full-time residents of institutions.

The sample included nearly 12,000 people, including a supplementary sample of 1,500 people aged 55 to 74. Interviews were conducted by telephone over a twelve-month period in 1994, with a response rate of 81%.

Measurement of "retirement"

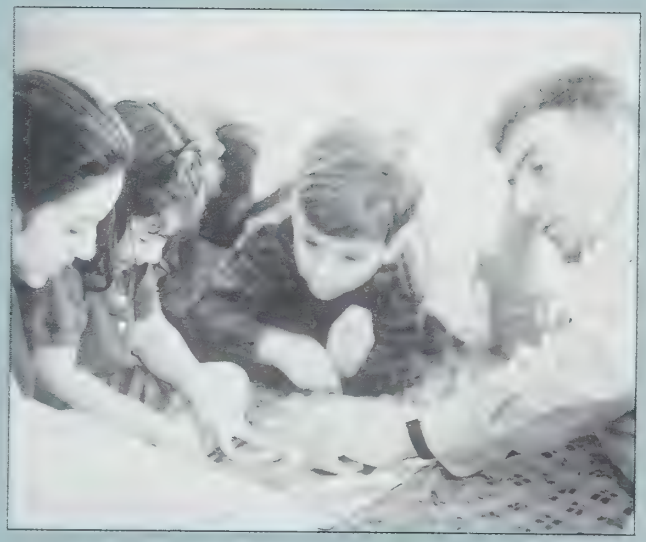
People were considered "currently retired" if they had been previously employed and declared retirement as their main activity during the week prior to the survey.

People who were "previously retired" were aged 50 and over and had retired at some time in the past. These retirees could have retired again before the survey or they could have been working for pay at the time of the survey.

CHILDREN IN LOW-INCOME FAMILIES

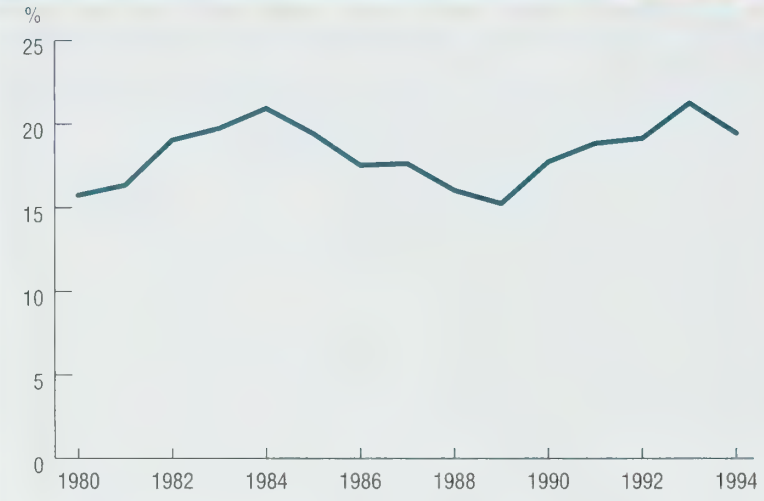
by Garnett Picot and John Myles





Employment earnings of workers under age 35 have declined substantially since the late 1970s. Although most children under age 15 live in families headed by young adults, the proportion of children living in low-income families was relatively stable through the 1980s, rising and falling with the business cycle. Had declining earnings been the only factor at work, the percentage of children in low-income families would have risen substantially. However, rising transfer payments to families helped keep the incidence of children living in low-income families stable. Moreover, changes in family and labour market behaviour have counter-balanced the effect of declining earnings. Today's parents are having fewer children and are having them later in life. Education levels are higher than in the past, and dual-earner families are more common.

Proportion of children living in low-income families[1]



[1] Children under age 18 living in families with incomes below the Low Income Cut-offs.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB.

Proportion of children in low-income families stable Fluctuations in the percentage of children under age 18 who lived in low-income families can be attributed to changes in the business cycle through the 1980s and early 1990s. The percentage of children below Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs) rose during recessions and declined during expansions. There was, however, no long-term trend, either upward or downward.

The percentage of children in low-income families was higher in 1993 than during the recession of the early 1980s. It is, however, too early to tell whether or not an upward long-term trend began in the 1990s, as more years of data are needed. In any case, there was no upward trend in the proportion of children living in low-income families, during the 1980s.

Measuring low income using the 0.5 median income cut-off tells a similar story. In 1991, 17% of Canadian children under age 7 lived in families that had less than one-half the median family income, a slight increase from 16% in 1973. Among older children aged 7 to 14, however, the rate dropped to 14% in 1991, from 19% in 1973. Overall, the incidence of children living in low-income families did not change significantly over this period.

Employment earnings have been falling among young and low-wage workers Earnings among young adults began to fall in the late 1970s, and this decline accelerated during and immediately following the recession of the early 1980s. Shifts in the earnings of young men illustrate this decline. After adjusting for inflation, the annual earnings of men aged 25 to 34 working full time all year fell 10% between 1979 and 1992. Among those aged 17 to 24, the decline was 19%.

Employment earnings constitute the largest proportion of overall family income. In addition, the majority (60%) of young children under age 7 lived in households where the highest earner was under age 35.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Measuring low income

This article uses a measure of low income known as the "0.5 median income cut-off." The approach examines the distribution of family income based on the "Adult Equivalent Adjusted" (AEA) income for each economic family.[1] To calculate the AEA family income, the first adult in the family is given a weight of 1.0 while other members are assigned weights of 0.4 or 0.3, depending on the family composition. The number of "adult equivalents" in the family is simply the sum of these weights. The per capita AEA family income is the total family income divided by the number of "equivalent" adults in that family. In this manner, the efficiencies that can be gained in larger families from sharing the costs involved in running a household are taken into account.

Next, the median AEA family income is determined (the point where half of families have incomes above that value and half have incomes below). Families with incomes less than one-half of this median value (the 0.5 median income cut-off) are considered to have a low income.

This article also employs a measure of low income more widely used at Statistics Canada known as Low Income Cut-offs (LICOs). Based on 1992 spending patterns, families below the LICOs spent at least 60% of their income on food, shelter and clothing, and were therefore considered to have a low income. In comparison, the average Canadian family spent only 40% of their income on these items.

[1] An economic family is a group of two or more people who live in the same dwelling and are related to each other by blood, marriage, common law or adoption. Family income includes federal and provincial income taxes and all government transfers.

• For more information, see Wolfson, M. and J. Evans, **Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs: Methodological Concerns and Possibilities**, Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Product no. 72N0002.

Consequently, one might have expected the rate of low income among children to have risen as the earnings of younger adults fell. As outlined above, however, this did not happen and rates of children living in low-income families remained quite stable.

The drop in earnings among young workers is part of a larger story regarding the widening gap between low- and high-wage earners. For example, lower paid workers experienced greater declines in earnings than did other workers throughout the 1980s. Focusing on those working full time all year, the lowest paid (the one-fifth of workers with the lowest annual earnings) saw their earnings fall 15% between 1975 and 1993, while earnings changed little among higher paid workers. This increased polarization of earnings has been among the most significant economic developments of the past two decades.[1]

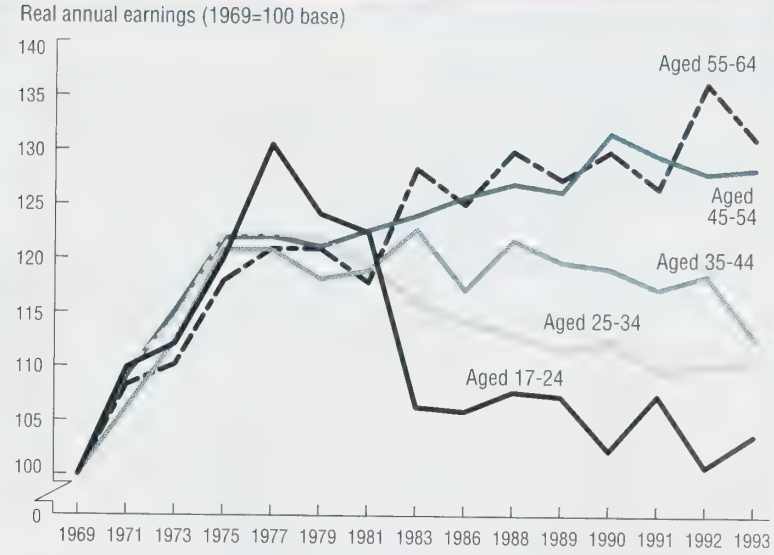
Despite significant changes in the distribution of labour market earnings, however, the distribution of overall family income has remained remarkably stable. Although the trend among younger workers has been towards lower employment earnings, the prevalence of low incomes (employment earnings plus income from other sources) among young families has followed the ups and downs of the business cycle, in part because government transfers to families have increased, and in part because of changes in family composition.

Government transfers grew as employment income fell among young families with children Between 1973 and 1991, as employment earnings declined for many families, government transfers[2] became an increasingly important source of income, especially for families with children. By 1991, transfers accounted for nearly two-thirds of the after-tax income of low-income families, up from just over one-third in 1973.

In those low-income families with young children under age 7, the share of after-tax income from government transfers rose to 63% in 1991, up from 45% in 1981, and from 36% in 1973. Most of this increase in transfer payments came from the Child Tax Credit and from Social Assistance.

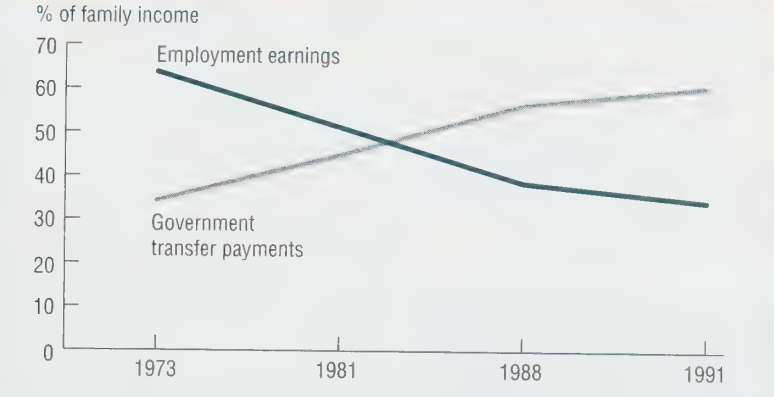
Transfer payments played a significant role in keeping the incidence of low income among children stable. In the absence of transfer payments and taxes, the proportion of children under age 7 in low-income families would have risen to 28% in 1991, up from 20% in 1981. However, the actual rate of low income among these children (including the impact of transfers and taxes) rose much

Employment earnings of young men have fallen since the late 1970s CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Product no. 11F0019E, no. 82.

Low-income families with children[1] depending more on transfers CST



[1] Families, with children under age 15, with incomes below 0.5 of median family income.
Source: Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Product no. 11F0019E, no. 82.

[1] For more information, see Morissette, R., J. Myles and G. Picot, "Earnings Inequality and the Distribution of Working Time in Canada," **Canadian Business Economics**, Spring 1994; and Morissette, René, **Why Has Inequality in Weekly Earnings Increased in Canada?**, Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Product no. 11F0019E, no. 80.

[2] Government transfers include family and youth allowances, Old Age Security, Guaranteed Income Supplement, Canada and Quebec Pension Plans, Unemployment Insurance benefits, Social Assistance, federal and provincial tax credits, and other government transfers.



more modestly, to 17% from 15% over the same period. The pattern was similar for families with children aged 7 to 14. Thus, increases in transfer payments off-set declines in earnings and contributed to a relatively stable incidence of low income among children.

Changing family structure has had a major impact on low income among children Transfer payments are not the only reason for the relative stability in the prevalence of low income among children in the face of declining earnings. The families in which children live today are very different from those of a decade or two ago. Parents are having fewer children, and are having them later in life. Also, parents are generally better educated, and mothers are more likely to be in the labour force. The cumulative effect of these changes helped stabilize the incidence of low income among children.[3]

• ***Fewer children*** The proportion of families with two or fewer children increased from 60% to 70% between 1973 and 1991. Smaller families are at lower risk of low income because there are fewer people sharing resources.

• ***Having children later*** The age at which parents have children has also increased. The proportion of children in families in which the highest earner was under age 26 dropped to 11% in 1991 from 18% in 1973. Since family income tends to be higher among older workers, children born to older parents are relatively better off.

• ***Parents are better educated*** Parents are also better educated than in the past, again increasing their earnings potential. The proportion of children in families where the highest earner had at least some postsecondary education rose to over 40% in 1991 from 25% in 1973.

• ***More dual-earner families*** The share of children in families with two or more adult earners rose dramatically to 62% in 1991 from 38% in 1973. This rise in the number of dual-earner families increased the earnings of families and reduced the risk of low income among children.

• ***More lone-parent families*** In contrast, children living with only one parent are more likely to be in a low-income situation. The proportion of children living in economic families with only one adult rose to 11% in 1991 from 5% in 1973. However, the other changes in family characteristics – particularly the trend toward more dual-earner families and the lower number of children per family – have more than offset the impact of the rising number of lone-parent families.

Demographic changes tended to reduce low income among children These changes in family characteristics (fewer children, having them later in life, higher education levels of parents, more dual-earner families and more lone-parent families) reduced the incidence of low income among children under age 7 by nearly 4 percentage points between 1973 and 1991.[4] For children aged 7 to 14, changing family characteristics had an even more significant effect. It is estimated that these changes in family composition reduced the incidence of low income among this age group by 7 percentage points. Without these changes, the incidence of low income would have risen.

Transfers and demographics resulted in stability If employment earnings had

[3] For more information, see Dooley, M., "The Demography of Child Poverty in Canada, 1973-1986," **Canadian Studies in Population**, vol. 18(1), 1991.

[4] This estimate was derived using a statistical technique known as logistic regression analysis decomposition. For more information, see Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Product no. 11F0019E, no. 82.

declined in isolation, the percentage of children in families with low income would have risen between 1973 and 1991. There are two main reasons why this did not happen: rising transfer payments to families through the 1980s and changes in the characteristics of families with children.

Financial pressure on Canada's social safety net may result in reductions of overall transfers and an increased emphasis on targeting such transfers on the basis of need. Whether changes in family characteristics, in particular the increase in the number of dual-earner families, will off-set any future declines in employment earnings of young families remains to be seen. It also remains to be seen whether employment earnings among young and low-wage workers will continue to decline as they did through the 1980s and early 1990s.

Thus, there is considerable uncertainty over future trends in the three factors (employment earnings, transfer payments and changing family structure) that resulted in relatively stable proportions of children in low-income situations over the past two decades. Given the significant changes taking place both in the labour market and in Canada's social transfer system, continued careful monitoring of trends in low income and their underlying causes is needed.

• For more information, see Picot, G. and J. Myles, **Social Transfers, Changing Family Structure and Low Income Among Children**, Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Product no. 11F0019E, no. 82.

Garnett Picot is Director of the Business and Labour Market Analysis Division, Statistics Canada, and **John Myles** is Professor of Sociology, Florida State University.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

A work disincentive effect?

Some have suggested that increases in social transfers actually encourage low employment earnings (resulting in more children living in low-income situations). By providing an alternative to the labour market, it is argued, the welfare state creates disincentives for individuals and families to work and encourages dependency. Although a work disincentive almost certainly exists, the issue is one of magnitude. It is highly unlikely that any work disincentive effect would be large enough to explain the declines in employment income among young families outlined in this article.

Studies examining the effects of transfer payments in Canada, and elsewhere, conclude that changes in the system of taxation and social transfers have only modest effects on labour supply.[1] Furthermore, declining employment earnings among young people are not unique to Canada. In fact, similar declines have occurred in most Western countries, despite vastly different social security systems. The United States experienced comparable changes in the distribution of earnings, even though work disincentives in that country were being reduced through the 1980s as the transfer system was eroded.

After almost a decade of work in this area, researchers have moved away from the view that the transfer system explains declining earnings among younger and low-wage workers. Instead, attention is turning to the demand side of the labour market, the effects of changing trade patterns and the introduction of new technologies.

Thus, it is unlikely that work disincentive effects of transfer programs were the major cause of declining earnings for most young parents. It is much more likely that the transfer system responded to changing labour market conditions.

[1] For more information, see Blank, R., **Social Protection vs. Economic Flexibility, Is There a Trade-Off?**, Chicago Press, 1994; and Hum, D. and W. Simpson, **Income Maintenance, Work Effort and the Canadian Mincome Experiment**, Economic Council of Canada, 1991.

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"living with relatives"





HOME IS A PRIVATE PLACE, WHERE THE *intimacy of everyday life is shared between spouses or among parents and children – but seldom with anyone else. In 1991, more than four out of five Canadians in private households lived in a nuclear or census family. At the same time, though, nearly one million people lived with relatives other than their own nuclear family. These people tended to live with a parent, a sibling, a son or a daughter – people with whom a home was once shared.*

Although people "living with relatives" are not nuclear or census family members, they do form part of a more broadly defined unit known as an economic family. Related people who live together, regardless of how they are related, constitute an economic family. This article examines the characteristics of people who live with relatives in an economic family, but are not census family members.

In 1991, 3% of the total population in private households lived with relatives, a proportion that has been stable over the past two decades. People living with relatives reside in one of two different types of households. They may live with a related census family (a mother who lives with her son's family), or share a home with other relatives, though nobody in the household forms a census family (two brothers sharing an apartment).

BY NANCY ZUKEWICH GHALAM

How family is defined can have many implications. For example, eligibility for employee benefits, child-care subsidies, child tax benefits and income support programs are often based on family structure or family income. Although much social analysis has focused on nuclear or census families, exploring other types of family arrangements could provide insight into a host of issues related to social change and socio-economic well-being. An elderly woman, for instance, may require different social services if she lives alone versus living with her spouse. The same woman living with her daughter's family may affect their need for outside child care, or the degree to which the family has both child-care and elder-care responsibilities. In all cases, family structure has an impact on the resources available to run the household.

Seniors most likely to be living with relatives... Living with relatives is most common among the older segments of the Canadian population. In 1991, 6% of people aged 65 to 74 in private households lived with relatives, but were not part of a census family. This represented 103,000 seniors in this age range, who were fairly evenly split between those living with a related census family (55%), and those sharing a household with other relatives who did not form a census family (45%). Among the oldest group of seniors, those aged 75 and over, more than one in ten (12%) lived with relatives. They numbered 126,000, and were more likely to live with a related census family (62%) than in a household with other relatives (38%).

In other age groups, the share of people who were living with relatives ranged from just 2% of children under age 15, to 4% of those aged 15 to 24. The vast majority of children under age 15 who lived with relatives (nine out of ten) were living with a related census family.

...although this has become less common Seniors were only half as likely to live with relatives in 1991 as they were twenty years earlier. In 1991, 6% of people aged 65 to 74 in private households were living with relatives, down from 11% in 1971. Even more dramatically, the share of seniors aged 75 and over living with relatives fell to 12% from 23% over the same period.[1] Meanwhile, the share of seniors who lived alone in their own homes jumped to 28% from 20%. This illustrates the overall trend toward more independent living among seniors.

Over the past two decades, the overall likelihood of living with relatives has remained steady at around 3%, despite the dramatic decrease among seniors. This may be attributed to several factors, the most important of which is the effect of the aging baby boom generation. Seniors were less likely to live with relatives in 1991 than in 1971, but they accounted for a larger share of the total population in private households. At the same time, the percentage of people aged either 25 to 34 or 35 to 44 who lived with relatives remained stable, while they too made up a greater share of the population. Consequently, the population living with relatives in 1991 was composed of proportionately more young people and fewer seniors. In addition, a small but increasing share of children reside with relatives other than their parents. In 1991, 2% of children under age 15 lived with relatives, up from 0.4% two decades earlier.

Women more likely to live with relatives when older In 1991, 15.6% of women aged 75 and over lived with relatives, as did 7.8% of those aged 65 to 74, and 4.4% of those aged 55 to 64. For women in other age groups, the proportion ranged from just 1.4% of those aged 35 to 44, to 3.4% of those aged 15 to 24.

On the other hand, the likelihood of living with relatives was similar for elderly men and their younger counterparts. In 1991, 4.2% of men in both the 15 to 24 and 25 to 34 age groups lived with relatives, as did 3.0% of men aged 65 to 74, and 6.3% of those aged 75 and over.

In addition, men under age 45 were more likely than their female counterparts to live with relatives, while the opposite was true of those aged 45 and over. This is related, in part, to the longer life

[1] These figures include only those seniors living in private households. The proportion of older seniors living in institutions (18% of women and 10% of men in 1991) has remained relatively stable since the mid-1970s. See "Seniors 75+: Living Arrangements," **Canadian Social Trends**, Autumn 1993.

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What is a family?

Family definitions have evolved over the years. Prior to the 1941 Census, the definition of a family was based on the concept of a housekeeping unit in which people ate and slept under the same roof. The notion of "nuclear family" was first introduced in 1941. Statistics Canada has had two family definitions since 1956: census family and economic family.

A **census family** includes couples (married or common-law), with or without children of either spouse. Provided they have never been married, children of any age living with their parent(s) are counted as census family members. The census family definition also includes lone parents (single, separated, divorced or widowed) living with at least one never-married child. Related people sharing a household who do not fit this description are not members of a census family, though they do belong to an economic family unit.

An **economic family** is a group of two or more people who live in the same dwelling and are related to each other by blood, marriage, common law or adoption. The conceptual difference between a census family and an economic family is similar to the popular distinction between a nuclear and an extended family. Only couples or parents who live with never-married children are counted as part of a census family, while an economic family encompasses all relatives living in the same household, regardless of how they are related.

• For more information, see **Families in Canada**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 96-307-XPE.

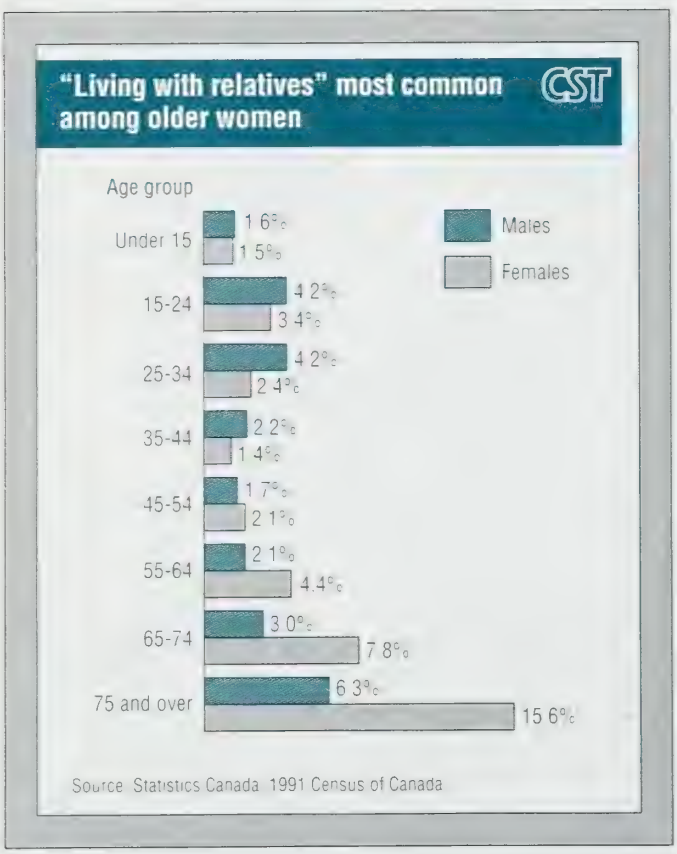
expectancy of women and their tendency to marry at younger ages. As a result, women are more likely than men to be widowed, and therefore, less likely to live in a census family when they are older. In 1991, only 43% of women aged 65 and over lived with their spouse in a census family, compared with 76% of senior men.

Furthermore, women most often get custody of children when a marriage ends. While lone parents and their children form their own census families, ever-married people without dependants who move in with family are counted among the ranks of those "living with relatives."

Most live with close relatives Not surprisingly, people who live with relatives tend to reside with immediate family. For example, 30% of those aged 15 and over living with relatives in 1991 shared a household with their brother or sister. Another 17% were living with their son's or daughter's family, and 14% with a sibling's family. As well, 8% were married or previously married individuals who had returned home to live with their mother and father, while 5% resided with just one parent. The remainder (14%) were living with other relatives, such as grandparents, aunts and uncles or cousins.[2]

A small proportion (2%) of all children under age 15 lived with relatives other than their parents in 1991. Of these 86,000 children, 76% lived with a grandparent, while 13% lived with an aunt or uncle.

It is important to note that living arrangements are dynamic. These census data only provide a snapshot of how people live together at a particular point in time. Life events, such as leaving home, marriage, births and deaths, and marriage dissolution all lead to adjustments in living arrangements and family composition. According to Statistics Canada's Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, which follows people over time, one in seven economic families in Canada experienced some change in family membership during 1993. For example, 212,000 young adults aged 15 to 24 left home, while 36,000 moved back in. Of the 20,000 seniors who began living with relatives other than a spouse during 1993, about two-thirds joined the household of a son or daughter.[3]



Women most likely to live with adult children... Given the tendency for women to live with relatives at older ages, it follows that many of these situations involve a mother residing with her adult children. In 1991, 25% of women living with relatives, compared with just 7% of men, were sharing a home with their son's or daughter's family. As well, 2% of women, compared with 0.4% of men, shared a household with an ever-married adult child.

...while men live with siblings or parents In contrast, men living with relatives are more likely to either reside with a sibling or to have moved back in with their parents. In 1991, 34% of men, compared with 27% of women, shared a household with a sibling. As well, 19% of men lived with their brother's or sister's family, compared with 10% of women. Similarly, 11% of men living with relatives were ever-married children who had returned to their parents' home, compared with just 6% of women.

These patterns are consistent with the fact that nearly half (48%) of men living with relatives in 1991 were between the ages of 15 and 35, compared with just over one-quarter (27%) of women. In addition, women who get custody of children after marriage dissolution would form a lone-parent census family and, therefore, would not be counted among people living with relatives, even if they had moved in with their parents.

Living with relatives more common among Aboriginal people... In 1991, 5% of all Aboriginal people, compared with 3% of the non-Aboriginal population, lived with relatives but were not part of a census family. Differences were especially dramatic for the very youngest and oldest age groups. In 1991, 6% of Aboriginal children under age 15 lived with relatives, compared with just 1% of non-Aboriginal children. Similarly, young Aboriginal adults aged 15 to 24 were nearly twice as likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to live with relatives, 7% versus 4%. At the other end of the age spectrum, 15% of Aboriginal people aged 65 and over lived with relatives, compared with 8% of non-Aboriginal seniors. These trends may reflect particular Aboriginal cultural traditions with respect to family roles and responsibilities.

...and among immigrants Immigrants in general, and older immigrant women in particular, are also more likely than the Canadian-born population to live with relatives. In 1991, 5% of all immigrants, compared with 3% of the Canadian-born population, lived with relatives, but were not members of a census family.[4]

Immigrants born in the United States or Europe, however, are far less likely than immigrants from other parts of the world to live with relatives. In 1991, 3% of both Canadian-born people and those born in Europe or the United States lived with relatives, compared with 7% of immigrants from other regions.

Differences in living arrangements are especially evident for young adults and senior women. Immigrants between the ages of 15 and 34 who were born outside Europe or the United States were almost three times as likely as their Canadian-born counterparts or other immigrants to reside with relatives in 1991. Similarly, one in four (25%) immigrant women aged 65 and over from countries outside the United States or Europe lived with relatives. In comparison, 8% of other senior immigrant women and 7% of those born in Canada were living with relatives.

Again, these differences may reflect particular cultural traditions with respect to extended family in areas such as Asia, the Middle East and Africa. As well, about half of immigrants living in Canada in 1991 who were born in countries outside the United States or Europe arrived during the 1980s. This raises the possibility that recent immigrants live in extended families for support during their initial period of settlement in Canada.

Relatives are an important source of financial and social support Although families come in many shapes and sizes, family members generally assume a certain responsibility for one another. Evidence from the 1990 General Social Survey indicates that even when they live in separate households, family continues to be an important source of assistance. For example, 59% of outside help with the housework was provided by a family member. Similarly, 68% of those who gave financial assistance to someone in another household were helping a relative.[5] Although the proportion of seniors sharing a household with relatives has declined since the 1970s, the same survey suggests that in 1990, spouses and children were still the main sources of emotional support for people aged 65 and over.[6]

Of course, living with relatives in the same household can also provide security, particularly for seniors and young adults. For many, it can mean the difference between living with low income or in less difficult circumstances. In 1993, for example, 56% of senior women and 38% of senior men who lived alone or with unrelated people were in a low-income situation, compared with just 8% of seniors who lived in an economic family. Among young people aged 15 to 24 living alone or with unrelated people, the incidence of low income was even higher: 64% for women and 59% for men.

People living with relatives pitch in financially Many people who live with relatives help to financially maintain the household.[7] In 1991, 40% of people aged 15 and over living with relatives contributed towards shelter costs. This suggests that people may also live with relatives in order to pool their resources.

[2] For 12% of those living with relatives in 1991, it was not possible to determine the family relationship.

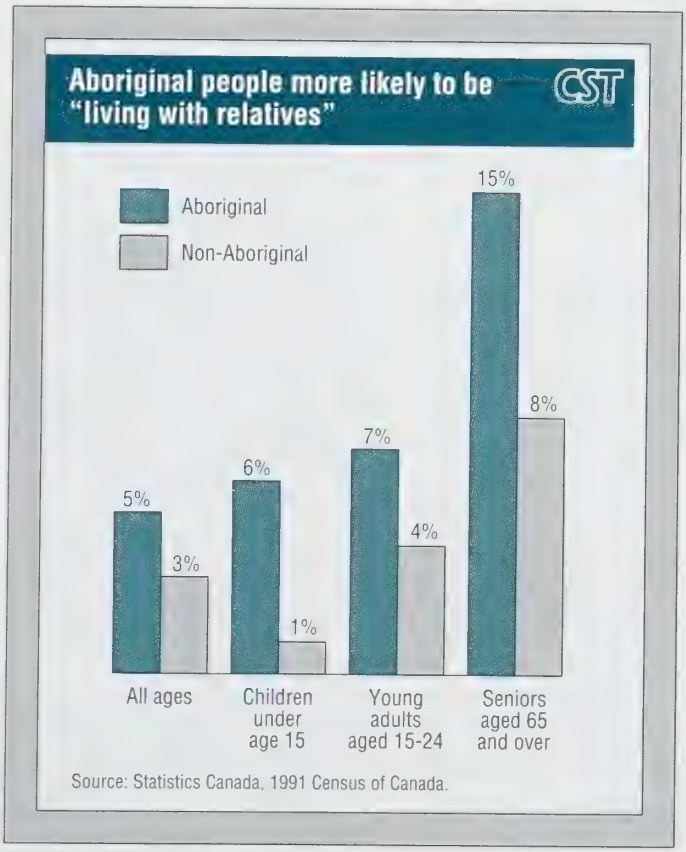
[3] See **Dynamics**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-002-XPB, vol. 5, no. 1.

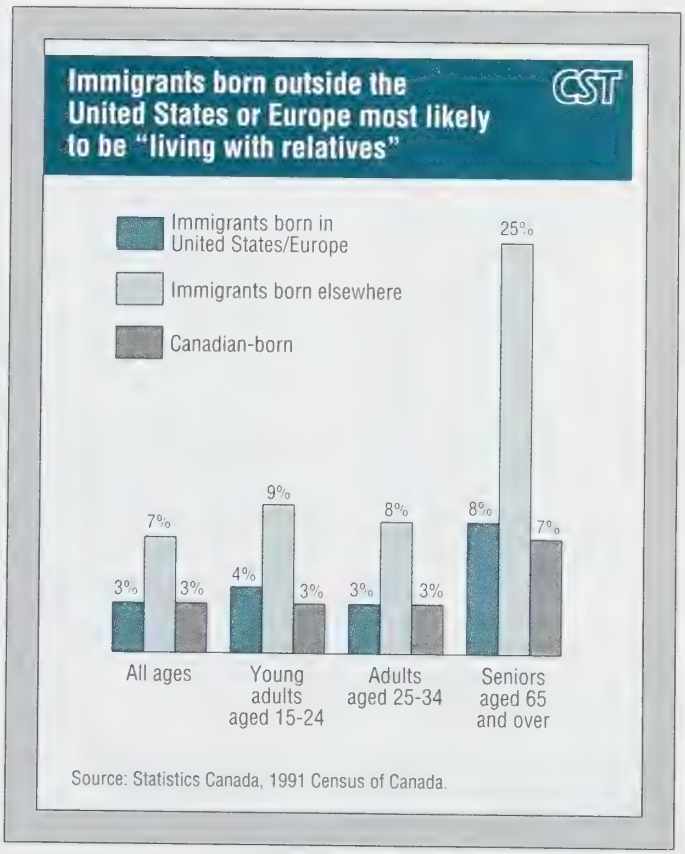
[4] Immigrants included people who were not Canadian citizens by birth, but who had been granted landed immigrant status. Children born in Canada to landed immigrants were Canadian citizens by birth, and as such, were not included as part of the immigrant population.

[5] See "Today's Extended Families," **Canadian Social Trends**, Winter 1992.

[6] See "Emotional Support and Family Contacts of Older Canadians," **Canadian Social Trends**, Spring 1993.

[7] A household maintainer is the person(s) in the household who pays the rent, mortgage, taxes, electricity, etc., for the dwelling. For the first time in 1991, respondents could identify more than one person who was responsible for these types of expenses.





The extent to which people living with relatives contribute towards shelter costs depends on their particular living arrangement. In 1991, two-thirds (67%) of those who shared a home with relatives where no census family was present were household maintainers. On the other hand, those who lived with a related census family were much less likely to pitch in for shelter costs. That year, just 15% of people who lived with a sibling's family, a child's family or with the family of some other relative, helped to maintain the household.

Older people living with relatives are generally most likely to contribute to shelter costs. In 1991, 27% of those aged 45 to 64 who were living with a related census family were household maintainers, as were 12% of those aged 75 and over. In contrast, this was the case for just 6% of those aged 15 to 24. The general pattern was similar for people who shared a household with other relatives, though the figures were much higher. In 1991, the proportion who were household maintainers ranged from 75% of those aged 65 to 74, to 58% of those aged 15 to 24.

Women more likely than men to help maintain household Regardless of their particular living arrangement, women living with relatives are more likely than their male counterparts to help with shelter costs. For example, 16% of women living with a relative's census family were household maintainers in 1991, versus 13% of men. The difference was even greater for those who were sharing a household with other relatives where no census family was present. In 1991, 71% of women living in this setting, compared with 62% of men, helped out with housing costs.

In general, this held true for women of all ages. Only senior women living with a related census family were less likely than their male counterparts to help pay housing costs. However, women aged 65 and over with this particular arrangement accounted for almost one in four women living with relatives (23%). In contrast, senior men residing with a related census family made up just 8% of all men living with relatives that year.

Conclusion Although living arrangements have changed in several respects over the past two decades, the proportion of people living with relatives has remained stable. Seniors generally, and senior women in particular, are most likely to live with relatives, while young men are more likely than young women to live in this setting. However, the proportion of both senior women and men living with relatives has fallen, as an increasing share of seniors live alone in their own homes. People who live with relatives most often reside with immediate family, such as a sibling, or an adult son or daughter.

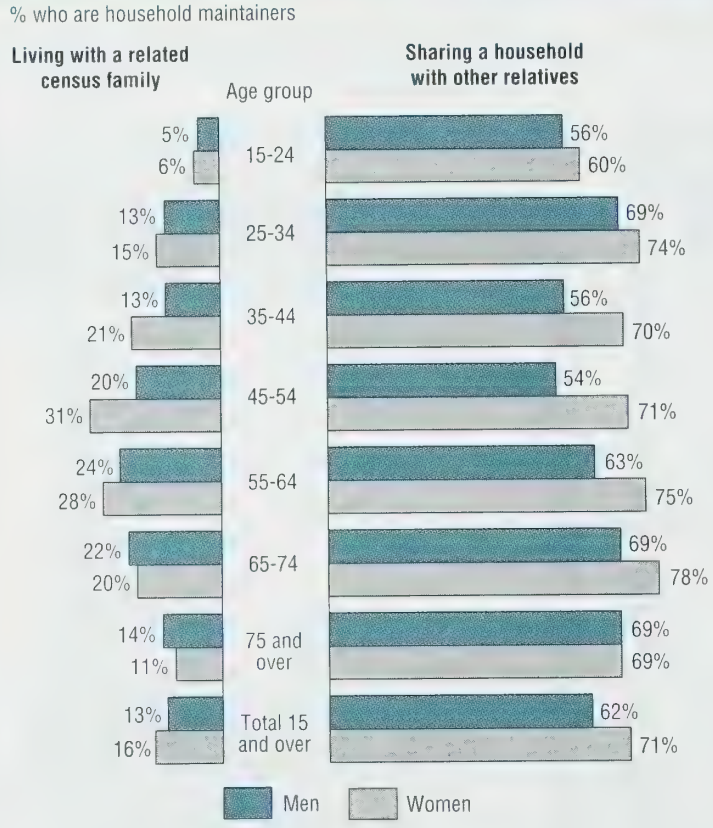
Ethnicity and cultural traditions appear to be important, as Aboriginal people and immigrants born outside Europe or the United States are considerably more likely than other Canadians to live with relatives. A large share of people living with relatives help to pay shelter costs, suggesting that the pooling of resources may also be an important factor.

As the population grows steadily older and more ethnically diverse, and as economic conditions continue to change, monitoring living arrangements remains an important key to understanding social trends. To this end, results of the 1996 Census and longitudinal surveys such as the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics will provide continuing information about how Canadians live together.

Nancy Zukewich Ghalam is a senior analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

CST

Women "living with relatives" generally more likely than men to be household maintainers[1]



[1] A household maintainer is the person(s) who pays the rent, mortgage, taxes, electricity, etc., for the dwelling.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Census of Canada.

MEASURING AND VALUING

Households' Unpaid Work







In Canada and elsewhere, people spend roughly as much time on unpaid work as they do on paid work. No matter how unpaid work is valued, it represents a major use of resources with substantial costs and benefits to individuals, households and society. This article summarizes the activities included as unpaid work, Statistics Canada's most recent estimate of its value, and how demographic, economic and social trends have influenced unpaid work over the past thirty years.

by Chris Jackson

Issues related to unpaid work have drawn increasing interest in recent years. These include: child care, care of the growing number of seniors, the disproportionate share of unpaid work done by women, the pressures of balancing family and job responsibilities, and the inclusion of unpaid work in national statistics such as the System of National Accounts. Attention has also focused on the adjustment of taxation, pension and income support policies and programs to recognize the contribution of unpaid work to the economic and social well-being of Canadians. Courts are also engaged in assessing the value of unpaid work. For example, lawyers and judges need to know its value in cases of negligence causing injury or death, and in divorce settlements.

Unpaid work covers a wide range of activities International guidelines recommend limiting the scope of unpaid work to those unpaid activities that produce goods and services which could be exchanged in the market. Unpaid work includes: domestic chores, looking after children, shopping and management of the household, volunteer work, helping friends, relatives and others, and transportation to and from these activities.

Women still do most of the unpaid work In 1992, adult Canadians spent 25 billion hours on unpaid work. This represented 1,164 hours per adult, down from 1,223 hours in 1961.

Women, on average, spent 78% more time in 1992 on unpaid work than men did (1,482 hours per year, compared with

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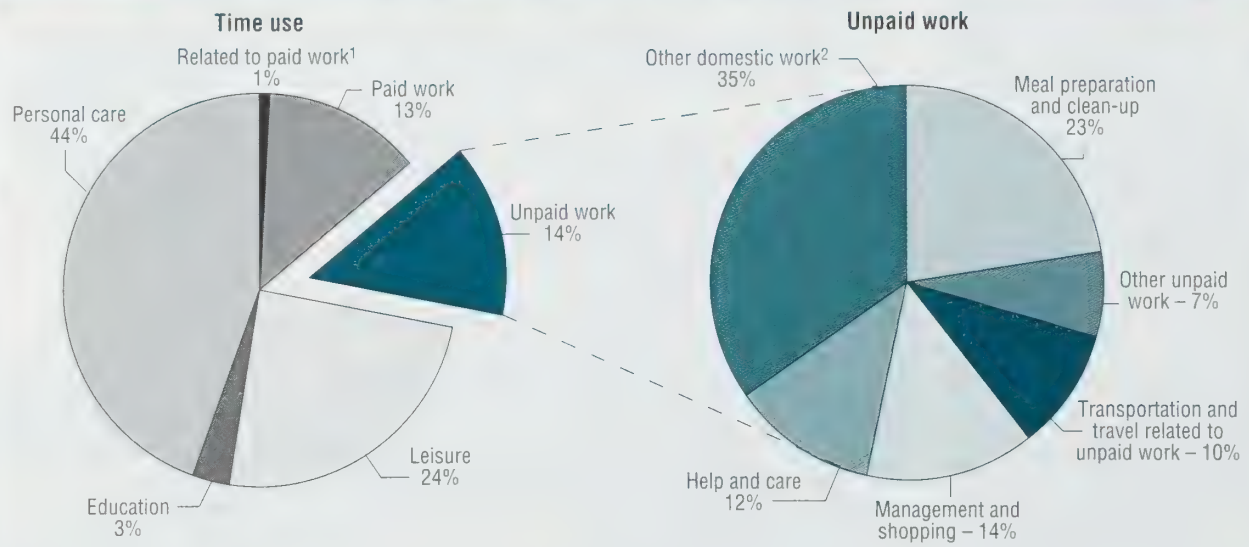
Measuring unpaid work

Time use surveys are essential for estimating the value of unpaid work. These surveys provide information on the amount and types of unpaid work done, and who does this form of work. Statistics Canada's initial efforts in the mid-1970s to estimate the value of household work relied upon data from time use surveys in Halifax and Toronto in 1971-72.

Subsequent studies used the 1981 Canadian Time Use Pilot Study, and the 1986 and 1992 General Social Surveys (GSS) on time use. Each survey asked respondents to keep a 24-hour diary of their daily activities, including paid work, unpaid work, education, personal care and leisure.

The 1986 and 1992 surveys covered a representative sample of the household population aged 15 and over in the ten provinces. The 1981 pilot survey included people at fourteen locations across Canada. Although everyone's unpaid work contributes to family and social well-being, that of children under age 15, people living in institutions and temporary residents of Canada was not measured.

Canadians spent roughly as much time on unpaid work as on paid work CST



[1] Includes looking for work, idle time before and after work, and travel to and from work.
[2] Includes cleaning, laundry and ironing, clothes and shoe repair, home repair and maintenance, gardening and grounds maintenance, and pet care.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

831 hours). They also spent 11% less time on unpaid work in 1992 than in 1961, though their participation in the labour force had nearly doubled over the same period. In contrast, men spent 6% more time on unpaid work. Nonetheless, women still did about two-thirds of the unpaid work in 1992. If paid and unpaid work were combined, women spent the same amount of time working as men did.

Meal preparation and clean up the biggest chore Meal preparation and clean up is by far the single most time-consuming activity, taking close to one-quarter of the time spent on unpaid work. Household work represents about 95% of unpaid work, with the balance devoted to volunteer work and helping others outside the household. Although volunteer work and helping others represented only 5% of unpaid work, it was still equivalent to more than 730,000 full-time jobs in 1992.

A changing composition of tasks and division of labour Canadians spent less time on meal preparation and care of household members in 1992 than in 1961. But, they spent more time on cleaning, clothing care, repairs and maintenance, household management and shopping.

The division of these tasks between the sexes has also changed since 1961. By 1992, women were spending relatively more time on cleaning, management and shopping, transportation, volunteer work and helping others outside the household. Meanwhile, men were spending more time on repairs and maintenance, and on the traditionally female tasks of meal preparation and clothing care.

Valuing unpaid work The value of unpaid work is estimated on the basis of hourly wage rates from census data on employment earnings. The two most common wage-based methods are derived from the notions of "opportunity cost" and "replacement cost." Opportunity cost methods assign a value to unpaid work based on the wage rate of the person doing the unpaid work.[1] The value of

[1] Household members doing unpaid work could have worked for pay instead. The value of unpaid work is equivalent to its opportunity cost, the foregone wage.

What is unpaid work?

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A: Household work

Domestic work	Examples
✓ Meal preparation	making a pot of tea, setting the table, cooking, baking, cleaning up after meals or baking, washing/drying dishes
✓ Cleaning	mopping floors, dusting, vacuuming, making beds, taking out the garbage
✓ Clothing care	washing laundry, hanging it out to dry, folding clothes and linen, mending clothes, sewing on buttons, shining shoes, hemming
✓ Repairs and maintenance	painting, plastering a wall, plumbing, fixing or washing the car, renovations, mowing and watering grass, weeding, composting, raking leaves, watering house plants
✓ Other domestic work	packing for a move or vacation, rearranging furniture, putting groceries away, feeding and grooming pets
Help and care	
✓ Child care	feeding, changing and bathing babies and other children, putting them to bed, teaching them to learn, helping with school work, reprimanding, reading and talking to children, administering first aid, medicines or shots, taking temperature, playing games with children, walking or biking with them, unpaid baby-sitting by household members (not parents or guardians), visiting children in hospital
✓ Adult care	washing and cutting hair, running a bath, providing help to disabled and elderly members of the household, administering first aid, preparing and administering medicines, taking temperature
Management and shopping	paying bills, balancing chequebooks, making shopping lists, preparing tax returns, shopping for groceries, clothing, hardware, gasoline, looking for a house or apartment, getting appliances repaired
Transportation and travel	travel related to management and shopping for goods and services, taking family members to day care, work, school, hospital and other places, other travel related to domestic work

B: Other unpaid work

✓ Volunteer work	fund raising, answering a crisis line, delivering meals
✓ Other help and care	helping friends, neighbours, relatives and others with housework, cooking, transportation, repairs and maintenance
✓ Transport: other unpaid work	travel related to volunteer work and other help and care

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-603-XPE, no. 3.

Demographic, economic and social trends affecting unpaid work

Dramatic influx of women into the labour force Women's participation in the labour force almost doubled over the past thirty years, reaching 58% in 1992. Labour force participation of women with children under age 3 also nearly doubled to 61% in 1992 from 32% in 1976. This significantly reduced the time spent on unpaid child care and increased the demand for paid child-care services.

Fewer children and more seniors At the height of the postwar baby boom, children under age 5 comprised more than 12% of the population. This proportion declined to about 7% in 1992. As a result, Canadians needed less time for child care and related activities with fewer and older children. This has repercussions on the market economy as well, as women with young children often withdraw from the labour market temporarily, work part time or seek child-care services.

In 1992, seniors made up 12% of the population, up from 8% in 1961. Although seniors are healthier than in the past, many need help and care, especially the most elderly. On the other hand, they do not have the pressing commitments related to having a paid job or to having children at home. Consequently, seniors have more time to engage in volunteer work and other informal helping and caring activities.

Households are getting smaller Average household size declined to 2.6 in 1992 from 3.9 people in 1961. Smaller households do less household work than larger ones. However, they also have fewer opportunities to take advantage of "economies of scale." The time taken to prepare dinner for three, for example, is often not much different from that required to prepare a comparable dinner for two.

More rooms to clean and more amenities Canadians are living in dwellings with more rooms and amenities than in 1961. The average number of rooms per dwelling increased to 5.9 in 1992 from 5.4 in 1961. Indoor cleaning tends to increase with the number of rooms. Nearly all dwellings today have hot water supply, a bath, shower and flush toilet. Roughly 15% to 20% of dwellings were without such facilities in the early 1960s. These amenities ease many unpaid activities such as cooking, child care and washing dishes, although they also require time for their upkeep.

In 1992, 57% of households lived in single-detached dwellings, compared with 65% in 1961. This also affects the amount and type of unpaid work that Canadians do. Apartment dwellers generally spend less time on home repair and maintenance, outdoor cleaning, gardening and grounds maintenance.

More appliances than ever before In 1992, most households had an electric stove, a refrigerator and a vacuum cleaner. Roughly three out of four households had a microwave oven, a freezer, an automatic washer and dryer. Forty-four percent had a dishwasher in 1992, compared with less than 2% in 1961. The use of household appliances potentially saves time and makes some tasks easier to do. On the other hand, it may also lead to more time being spent on appliance repairs and maintenance or on seeking repair services.

Paradoxically, time spent on household work has remained almost constant over time. Part of the explanation lies in rising standards of quality and cleanliness. For example, automatic washers have made doing laundry easier compared with old-style wringer washers. Nowadays, however, Canadians are cleaning their clothing and linen more often. In addition, the availability of cheaper and more efficient appliances leads households to do some things themselves rather than purchase similar goods or services in the market.

More income to manage and spend The increase in women's employment since 1961 has coincided with a rise in family income. Average family income increased to $53,700 in 1992 from $28,500 in 1961 (1992 dollars). With more money to manage, expenditures to make and investments to consider, shopping and managing household finances have become more time consuming.

Spending patterns have changed In some cases, households relied more on market services in 1992 than they did in 1961. For example, Canadians spent more of their food budgets on meals outside the home in 1992 (32%) than they did in 1961 (17%). Similarly, spending on child care outside the home, one of the fastest growing components of personal spending, increased to $2.8 billion in 1992 from $37 million in 1961.

In other instances, household self-reliance may have increased. In 1992, 83% of households owned at least one vehicle, up from 68% in 1961. This, combined with increased multiple vehicle ownership, has slowed the growth in personal spending on public transit and taxi services. Similarly, laundry and dry-cleaning services account for a smaller proportion of household budgets, as households have replaced these services with their own washer and dryer. This has occurred despite an increase of more than 190% in spending on clothing between 1961 and 1992.

unpaid work at opportunity cost is calculated both before and after taxes.

The replacement cost method puts a value on unpaid work based on the wage rate paid to people who do similar types of work.[2] This can be calculated in two ways. The generalist approach values each unpaid activity using the wage rate of domestic employees (housekeepers). The specialist approach uses the wage rates of specialized occupations. For example, the value of meal preparation is based upon the wages of cooks or chefs.

Both the opportunity and replacement cost methods have the weakness of being only indirectly related to the value of goods and services produced by households. With the opportunity cost method, for example, the value of washing dishes could be $100 per hour for a lawyer or $10 per hour for a sales clerk, although both may do the job equally well.

Replacement cost methods assume that household members are as efficient as the businesses or domestic staff who, in theory, could do their unpaid work. For example, a household member may take one hour to mow the lawn. The replacement cost of that unpaid work equals the price of one hour of a groundskeeper's or domestic worker's time. This value is used although it might take these workers less time to do perhaps an even better job. Replacement cost methods also assume that tasks such as household management and volunteer work can be delegated to domestic employees which may not be possible.

Many researchers favour the generalist replacement cost method. Domestic employees work in a similar setting and under similar conditions as household members. Moreover, the method is easier to apply.

Value of unpaid work equalled almost $11,000 per adult in 1992 Using the generalist replacement cost method, the value of unpaid work was $136 billion in 1961 (in 1992 dollars) and $235 billion in 1992. For both years, this represented about one-third of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the total value of market-produced goods and services.

The value of unpaid work averaged $10,900 per adult in 1992, down from $11,300 in 1961. The averages hide some significant variations among demographic groups. For instance, the unpaid work of married women who were not employed and had children was worth $24,400 in 1992. That year, the average paid worker earned $24,900.

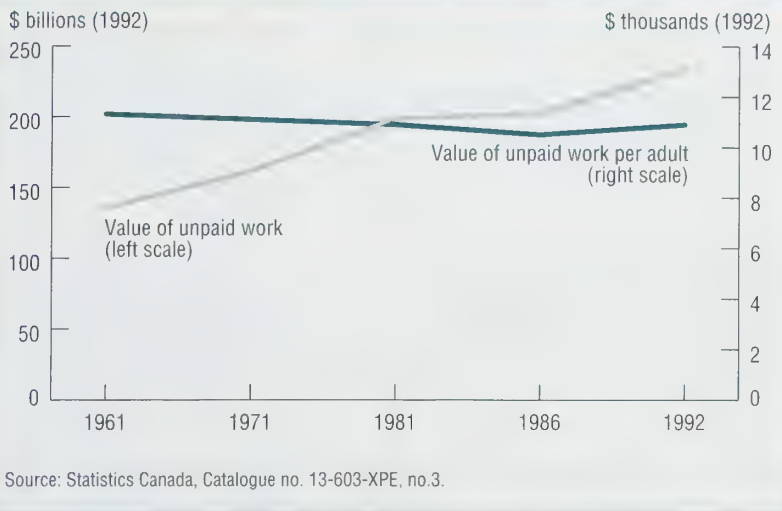
Much work to be done Despite advances in the measurement of unpaid work, debate continues on what counts as unpaid work and how to place a value on it. The distinction between unpaid work and leisure or personal activities (non-work) is not always clear. Should unpaid work include activities such as exercising, learning, producing domestic crafts and commuting to work? Are other activities often included as unpaid work, such as gardening, window shopping or playing with children, too much like leisure?

Resolving the difficult issue of valuation of unpaid work is also important. Should the value of unpaid work be estimated based on the time spent doing unpaid work or should it be based on the value of goods and services produced as a result? Is a market-based value even appropriate for valuing households' unpaid work?

The evolution of the debate on the measurement and valuation of unpaid work undoubtedly will shape Statistics Canada's future efforts in the field. Meanwhile, Statistics Canada is undertaking research toward creating a system of unpaid work statistics. The 1996 Census was the first Canadian census to measure the time spent on housework, child and elder care. The resulting data will form an integral part of this system.

Better information on unpaid work can lead to a more thorough understanding of the use of human resources. It can foster a greater understanding of the economy and the links between its market and non-market sectors. Measuring unpaid work provides information on what types of work are undertaken, what goods and services result, what costs are incurred, who provides and who benefits. Perhaps even more importantly, it recognizes the unpaid but beneficial tasks that Canadians do for themselves, their families and friends, and for the community at large.

Between 1961 and 1992, the total value of unpaid work increased, while the value per adult remained almost the same

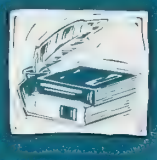


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-603-XPE, no.3.

[2] Instead of doing work themselves, household members could have purchased goods or services. The value of unpaid work is equivalent to the cost of paying someone else to do it (its replacement cost).

• This article was adapted from **Households' Unpaid Work: Measurement and Valuation**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-603-XPE, no. 3.

Chris Jackson is a research economist with the National Accounts and Environment Division, Statistics Canada.



EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends *in the classroom*

Lesson plan for **Canada's Population: Charting into the 21st Century**

Objectives

- ❑ To improve students' knowledge of demographic statistics
- ❑ To understand how population patterns in the past affect current and future trends
- ❑ To understand how fertility, mortality and migration contribute to population changes
- ❑ To appreciate how population patterns impact on society

Method

1. Provide each student with a copy of the article "Canada's Population: Charting into the 21st Century." Review terms such as "fertility," "mortality," "migration," "natural increase," and "dependency ratio."
2. Have the students write down their year of birth and calculate in what years they will be 30, 50 and 65 years old.
3. Have the students read the article.
4. In small groups or as a class, identify the changes in fertility, mortality and migration in the last fifty years. Discuss the major factors that caused these changes.
5. Discuss with the students how Canada's fertility, mortality and migration levels have led to slow population growth and population aging.
6. With specific references to the article, conduct a role-play where students are divided into three groups of "**social policy planners.**" Group one is responsible for children and youth, group two for the working-age population, and group three for seniors. Have the students identify the issues facing their age group today and in the future. Ask each group to present their ideas to the class.

Using other resources

- ❑ **Annual Demographic Statistics, 1995**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-213-XPB for information on population estimates.
- ❑ Statistics Canada's **E-STAT** or **CANSIM** CD-ROMS to access and graph population projections by age and sex. For current and historical data, refer to matrix numbers 6367-6379, and for population projections, matrix 6900-6912. Under the major subject "Demographic and Social Statistics" in the Topics list, you can find information on births, deaths, marriages, immigration and emigration.



Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using **CST** that you would like to share with other teachers? Send your ideas or comments to Harris Popplewell, Social Science Teacher at J.S. Woodsworth Secondary School, c/o Joel Yan, University Liaison Program, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. FAX (613) 951-4513. Internet: yanjoel@statcan.ca.



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SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	26,894.8	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0 PR	29,251.3 PR	29,606.1 PR
Annual growth (%)	1.3	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4 PR	1.1 PR	1.2 PR
Immigration[1]	152,413	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	227,860	215,652 P
Emigration[1]	40,978	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807 PR	45,949 PP
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.5	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4	13.2	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	N/A	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	12,819	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506
– goods sector (000s)	3,873	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653
– service sector (000s)	8,946	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852
Total unemployment (000s)	1,082	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422
Unemployment rate (%)	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5
Part-time employment (%)	15.2	15.0	15.3	16.3	16.7	17.2	17.0	16.6
Women's participation rate (%)	57.7	58.3	58.7	58.5	58.0	57.9	57.6	57.4
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	33.7	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	40,904	43,995	45,618	46,389	47,199	46,717	48,091	*
% of families with low income (1992 Base)	12.2	11.1	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.6	13.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.4	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.1	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,505.9 E
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	817.1	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 P	964.7 E	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,418	2,573	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356	3,552 R	3,647 E
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	5.5	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	39.5	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	36.3	*
– women	43.4	42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	40.0	*
% of deaths due to cancer – men	27.0	27.2	27.8	28.1	28.7	27.9	28.3	*
– women	26.4	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	*
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	*	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	865	908	970	1,056	1,077	1,072	1,037	*
– property	5,419	5,271	5,593	6,141	5,868	5,525	5,214	*
– homicide	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1993 $000,000)	179,817.8	187,892.3	196,762.4	205,481.1	211,778.7	211,432.6	*	*
– as a % of total expenditures	56.1	56.0	56.8	58.5	59.6	59.6	*	*
– as a % of GDP	24.7	25.2	26.9	29.5	30.2	29.7	*	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	2,910.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) – annual % change	+5.0	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.6	+2.2	+4.5	+2.2
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1
Urban housing starts	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526

– Not available * Not yet available P Preliminary data E Estimate m Figures as of March IR Revised intercensal estimates
PD Final postcensal estimates PP Preliminary postcensal estimates PR Updated postcensal estimates R Revised data F Final data
[1]For year ending June 30.
[2]Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture

Families get a raise

In 1994, following four consecutive years of decline, the after-tax income of families recovered some ground, primarily due to renewed strength in the labour market. Based on estimates from the Survey of Consumer Finances, average after-tax family income in 1994 was $43,486, a 1.3% increase from 1993 after adjusting for inflation. Consequently, after-tax income regained 19% – or over $500 – of the almost $3,000 lost since 1989, the peak year for family income.

Income after tax, distributions by size in Canada, 1994,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-210-XPB.

Young adults at heightened risk of depression

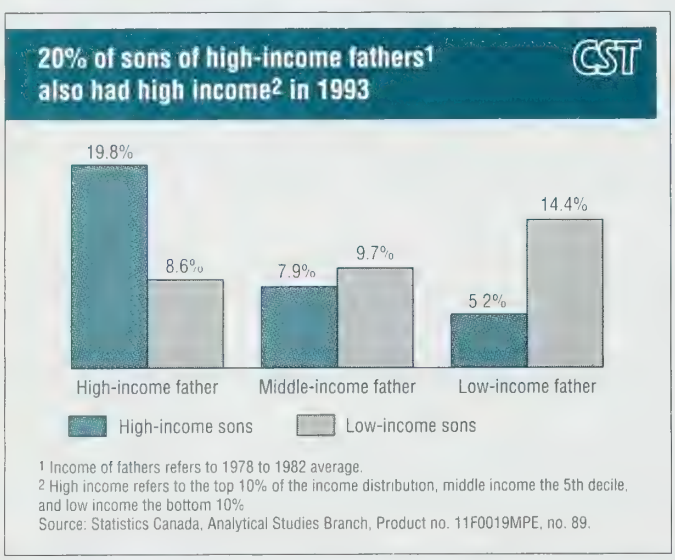
According to the 1994-95 National Population Health Survey, young people are much more likely than older people to experience a major depressive episode. After controlling for other variables, the odds of being depressed for people aged 18 to 24, compared with those aged 65 and over, were 1.75 to 1 for women, and 1.81 to 1 for men. Women aged 25 to 44 had higher odds of having been depressed in the twelve months preceding the survey than did women aged 65 and over. For men aged 25 to 44, however, the likelihood of being depressed was not significantly different from that of men aged 65 and over.

Health Reports, vol. 7 no. 4, Spring 1996,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB.

Like father like son

Low income may beget low income. High-income fathers are more likely to have high-income sons, and low-income dads are more likely to have low-income sons. A young man who was raised by a father in the top 10% of the income distribution earned, on average, 40% more than one raised in the bottom 10% of incomes.

The intergenerational income mobility of Canadian men,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 11F0019MPE, no. 89.



1 Income of fathers refers to 1978 to 1982 average.
2 High income refers to the top 10% of the income distribution, middle income the 5th decile, and low income the bottom 10%
Source: Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Product no. 11F0019MPE, no. 89.

Fewer wedding bells

A total of 159,316 couples got married in Canada in 1994. Although this was a slight rise (up 0.4%) from the year before, it followed four years of rapid decline. The numbers were still well below the most recent peak of 190,640 marriages in 1989.

In spite of the slight overall increase in numbers, the nation's marriage rate remained at 5.5 marriages for every 1,000 population. Among the provinces, Quebec had the lowest rate, 3.4 marriages per 1,000 population. However, this province also had a high proportion of common-law unions. Alberta had the highest marriage rate at 6.7 per 1,000 population. Overall, Canada's rate was higher than that of the European Union (5.2), but much lower than the rate in the United States (9.1).

Marriages, 1994,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-212-XPB.

Youth court cases down

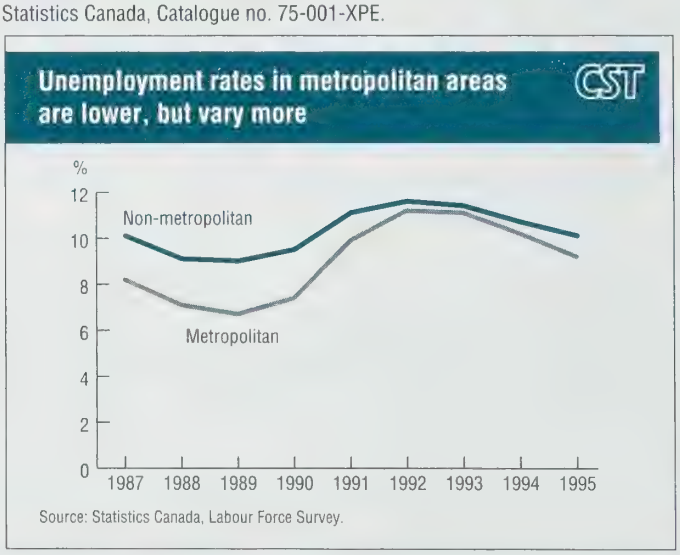
In 1994-95, youth courts heard 110,000 cases, down 5% from the previous year. This decrease contrasted with the steady growth in youth court caseloads since the mid-1980s. Cases involving both violent crime and property offences fell, while drug-related cases rose substantially. Two-thirds of the cases heard in youth courts in 1994-95 resulted in convictions.

Juristat, vol. 16, no. 4, March 1996,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XPB.

Regional shifts in unemployment

At the same time as unemployment rates in some parts of the country show some stability, they may vary more in other parts. For instance, metropolitan areas tend to show wider fluctuations, though their unemployment rates are usually lower than those of non-metropolitan areas. These differences have important consequences for the country. As the economy improves, certain regions tend to develop shortages of particular kinds of workers, while unemployment remains stubbornly high in other areas.

Perspectives on Labour and Income, Spring 1996,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.



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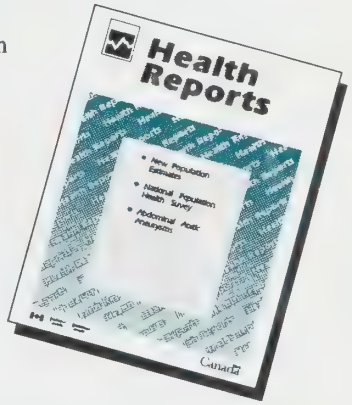
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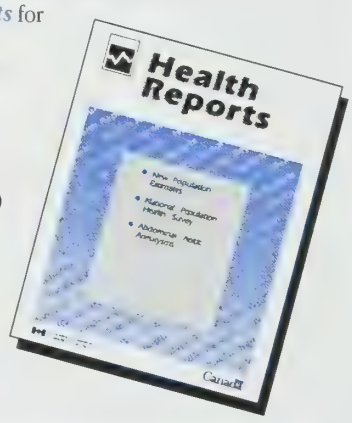
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ON OUR COVER:
The Habitant Farm (1856) oil on canvas, 61.0 x 91.5 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:
Cornelius David Krieghoff was born in Amsterdam, Holland in 1815. He studied music and painting at university in Dusseldorf and Rotterdam. In 1837, Cornelius Krieghoff arrived in New York. While serving three years in the U.S. Army, he sketched scenes from the Seminole war in Florida. He and his wife, Louise Gauthier, moved to the Longueuil, Que. home of his wife's parents, via Rochester, N.Y. and Toronto. There, he spent his time painting family portraits as well as depictions of the daily life of the Caughnawaga Indians. His Quebec period, 1853 to 1867, was his most prolific and prosperous. With the end of his marriage, Krieghoff went to live with his daughter in Chicago in 1867. He returned to Quebec later in 1871. A few months after his return to Chicago in 1872, he died at the age of 57.

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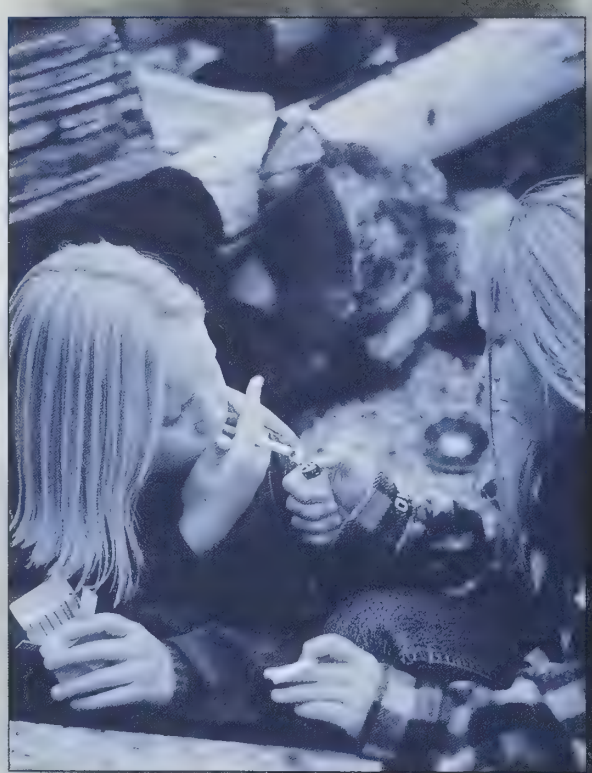
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Youth Smoking in Canada

by Warren Clark

The transition to adulthood is a time when young people develop a greater sense of self and independence. During this time, they sometimes experiment with risky health behaviours. They may use these behaviours to bond with peers, improve their social image, or appear more mature and independent.[1]



One of these risky behaviours is smoking. Smoking is a major cause of lung cancer and is a risk factor for numerous other diseases. In fact, health experts estimate that about 20% of Canadian deaths in the early 1990s were attributable to smoking.[2] This makes smoking the most important cause of preventable illness, disability and premature death in Canada.

Most people begin to smoke in their teens. While serious effects upon their health may not appear for decades, young smokers are at immediate risk of a range of health problems. These include nicotine addiction, reduced lung function, worsening of problems from asthma and other respiratory ailments, and increased coughing and wheezing. This article uses data from the 1994 Youth Smoking Survey (YSS) to show the prevalence of smoking among Canadian youth and the social conditions and environments that have influenced their smoking behaviour.

Smoking is an "initiation" Young people may begin to think about smoking as a way to appear more mature, to cope with stress, to bond with a group of peers or to display independence from their families. In the later stages of their "initiation," they experiment with smoking, and then, depending upon social reinforcement, move on to smoking in a variety of increasingly diverse settings. Finally, they may experience nicotine dependence and addiction.[3]

In 1994, about 15% of young people aged 10 to 19 (580,000) were current smokers, while another 7% (256,000) were beginning to smoke. There was no difference in the percentage of boys and girls who smoked; however, boys were somewhat heavier smokers. Boys who smoked every day consumed an average of 13.2 cigarettes per day, compared with an average of 11.5 for girls.

Beginning smokers may start to experiment with cigarettes by smoking irregularly, and if the physiological effects are negative, they may never try again. In 1994, 12% of youths were past experimenters. However, if peers, parents or other acquaintances encourage smoking or make it socially acceptable, they may start to smoke more frequently and more heavily.

Attempts to quit smoking are common among young smokers. Most of these attempts, however, had only short-term effects. About 44% of current smokers quit for less than one month, while another 20% managed for less than twelve months, and only 2% were successful for a year or more. Only 1% of youths were former smokers. This suggests that attempts to quit are more difficult after young people have progressed beyond cigarette experimentation.

Smoking begins early and its prevalence increases with age According to the 1994 Survey on Smoking in Canada, 84% of Canadian adults who had ever smoked began before they reached the age of 20. It appears that if people refrain from using tobacco during their youth, most will never start. The YSS revealed that about 5% of 12-year-olds were current smokers, although few smoked every day. On the other hand, almost one-third of 19-year-olds were current smokers, and over three-quarters of them were daily smokers. Experimentation with cigarettes peaked in the early teens, when 12% of 14-year-olds were beginning smokers; by age 19, only 4% were beginning.

[1] U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, **Relationship between cigarette smoking and other unhealthy behaviors among our nation's youth: United States, 1992**, Vital and Health Statistics of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention & National Center for Health Statistics, Advance Data, No. 263, April 24, 1995.

[2] Eva M. Makomaski Illing, Murray J. Kaiserman, "Mortality Attributable to Tobacco Use in Canada and its Regions, 1991," **Canadian Journal of Public Health**, Vol. 86., No. 4, July-August 1995. (Estimated 41,408 deaths attributable to smoking in 1991.)

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

1994 Youth Smoking Survey

In 1994, Statistics Canada conducted the Youth Smoking Survey (YSS) on behalf of Health Canada. It focussed on young people aged 10 to 19 and was the first national survey since 1978 to ask 10- to 14-year-olds detailed questions about their cigarette smoking attitudes and behaviours. About 14,300 students aged 10 to 14 were selected from a random sample of school classes in the ten provinces; these children completed a written questionnaire under the direction of a Statistics Canada interviewer. Meanwhile, another 9,500 young people aged 15 to 19 were interviewed by telephone.

The YSS definitions of current smokers differ somewhat from those used in earlier surveys of smoking behaviour. While earlier surveys counted all smokers regardless of the extent of their previous smoking experience as current smokers, the YSS differentiated between those who were just starting (beginning smokers) and those who were more established (current smokers). In this article, "current smoker" and "smoker" are used interchangeably.

- **Current smoker:** has smoked 100 or more cigarettes in his/her lifetime, and has smoked in the 30 days preceding the survey.
  - ***Current daily smoker:*** has smoked 100 or more cigarettes in his/her lifetime, and has smoked at least 1 cigarette per day for each of the 30 days preceding the survey.
  - ***Current non-daily (occasional) smoker:*** has smoked 100 or more cigarettes in his/her lifetime, and has smoked in the 30 days preceding the survey, but has not smoked every day.
- **Former smoker:** has smoked 100 or more cigarettes in his/her lifetime, but has not smoked at all in the 30 days preceding the survey.
- **Never smoked:** has smoked fewer than 100 cigarettes in his/her lifetime. This includes the following sub-categories:
  - ***Beginning to smoke:*** has smoked between 1 and 99 cigarettes in his/her lifetime, and has smoked in the 30 days preceding the survey
  - ***Past experimenter:*** has smoked between 1 and 99 cigarettes in his/her lifetime, but has not smoked in the 30 days preceding the survey
  - ***Lifetime abstainer:*** has smoked less than 1 whole cigarette in his/her lifetime.

• For additional information, see the **1994 Youth Smoking Survey**, Health Canada, Catalogue H49-98/1994E.

Friends strongly influence young people's smoking behaviour Peers have a strong impact on youth smoking. Almost three-quarters of young people aged 10 to 19 stated that people their age started smoking because their friends smoked. Ten- to 14-year-olds added other reasons as well, with 56% believing young people start smoking because they are curious about it, 46% because "it's cool" and 45% because "popular kids smoke."

The YSS bears out the link between peer example and smoking: the more smoking friends teenagers had, the greater the likelihood that they smoked as well. About 8% of youths aged 10 to 19 with one smoking friend were current smokers, while 42% of those with five or more smoking friends were smokers. In contrast, youths with no close friends who smoked were not likely to smoke either: only 1% were current smokers and 2% were beginning smokers in 1994.

Parents influence their children's smoking habits... Parental disapproval may deter children from starting, or it may make them more secretive: beginning smokers in the YSS said their parents often did not know that they were smoking. It does seem, though, that parents set a positive example to their teenagers by not smoking. According to the YSS, 31% of 10- to 14-year-olds and 10% of 15- to 19-year-olds believed that parental smoking was one reason why people their age started smoking. In two-parent families where neither parent smoked, 10% of youths were current smokers. In contrast, 14% of youths smoked if one parent smoked and 23% acquired the habit if both parents smoked. Teenagers who did

Types of cigarette smokers

	Age group		
	10-19	10-14	15-19
		%	
Total	100	100	100
Current smoker	15	7	24
Daily	10	2	18
Occasional	5	4	6
Former smoker	1	0	2
Never smoked	83	93	74
Beginning	7	7	6
Past experimenter	12	10	14
Lifetime abstainer	65	76	54

Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 Youth Smoking Survey.

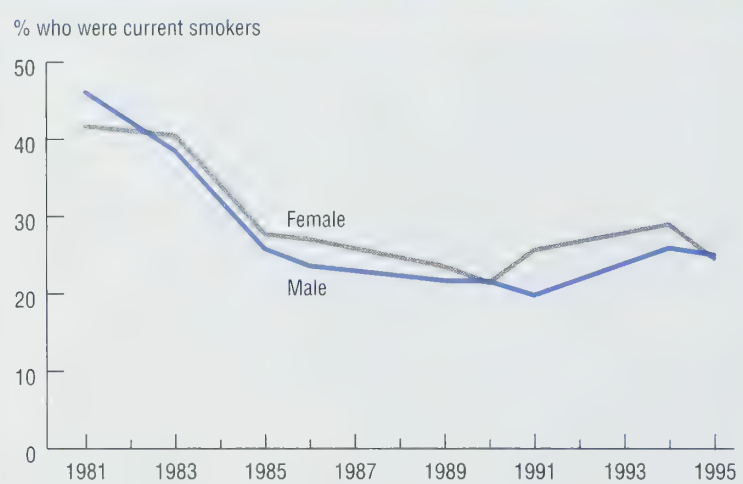
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Youth smoking trends

After declining during the 1980s, cigarette smoking rates among youth aged 15 to 19 increased to 27% in 1994 from 21% in 1990. In 1995, smoking rates among 15- to 19-year-olds decreased to 25%.



Cigarette smoking among 15- to 19-year-olds was more prevalent in 1994 and 1995 than in 1990



Sources: Statistics Canada, 1981, 1983, 1986 Survey of Smoking Habits; 1985, 1991, 1995 General Social Survey; 1989 National Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey; 1990 Canada's Health Promotion Survey; and 1994 Survey on Smoking in Canada, May 1994.

not live with their parents were most likely to smoke, with 42% reporting that they were current smokers.

...but other smokers at home are a bigger influence than parents Every day, or almost every day, about one in five young people were exposed to smokers in their homes, other than their parents. The effect of these smokers – whether relatives, friends, baby-sitters or other frequent visitors – was significant. Only 10% of young people smoked if there were no other smokers in the home (apart from parents), but the percentage climbed to 33% if there was one non-parental smoker at home and to 50% if there was more than one.

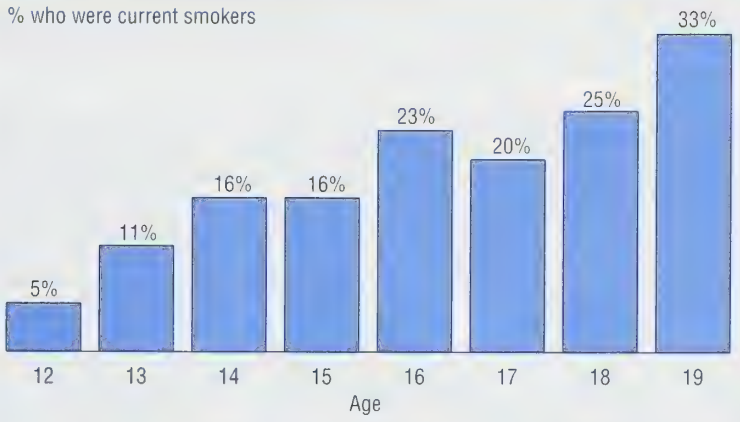
Schools influence smoking behaviour Schools can play a key role in influencing the smoking behaviour of students, mainly because most young people spend a substantial portion of their day there. This influence can extend from teaching the health risks of smoking to enforcing smoking regulations.

About three out of four young people remembered learning, while at school, about the health effects of smoking. These efforts had quite positive results: only 14% of youths who were taught about the health risks of smoking were current smokers, compared with 22% of those who did not remember learning such material. Making it difficult to smoke on school grounds also seems to affect young people's smoking behaviour. About 13% of young people who attended schools that banned student smoking were current smokers, compared with 20% of teenagers at schools that simply restricted smoking to a particular area.

High achievers at school were less likely to smoke Studies have consistently shown that the prevalence of smoking is associated with poor academic performance.[3] According to the YSS, about 8% of young people who rated their academic performance as above average were smokers. In contrast, 15% of average and 25% of below-average students were current smokers. Interestingly, over half (53%) of

[3] U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, **Preventing Tobacco Use Among Young People: A Report of the Surgeon General**, Georgia, 1994.

Prevalence of smoking increases with age



Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 Youth Smoking Survey.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Access to cigarettes

In February 1994, the federal government dramatically decreased tobacco taxes in an attempt to reduce cigarette smuggling. This action was followed by several provincial governments. However, the tax cut raised concerns that young people would be more likely to start smoking or less likely to quit because cigarettes were much cheaper. Indeed, the Survey on Smoking in Canada[1] found that 5% of young smokers aged 15 to 19 smoked more cigarettes because of the price decreases of early 1994. Furthermore, 19% of new 15- to 19-year-old smokers took up the habit because of the reduced cost of cigarettes.

Although it is illegal to sell cigarettes to anyone under the age of 18 or 19, depending on the province, young people are still able to obtain them. A 1995 Health Canada survey, conducted to assess retailer compliance with legislation prohibiting the sale of tobacco products to people under age 18, showed that 52% of retailers were willing to sell to minors.[2] Small retailers are an important source of supply for young smokers: data from the Youth Smoking Survey showed that over half of young smokers bought their cigarettes from small grocery or corner stores, while about 16% bought them from gas stations. Among beginning smokers, friends, relatives and other individuals were the primary source of cigarettes (68%), further emphasizing the influence of friends upon smoking behaviour.

[1] The Survey on Smoking in Canada, conducted by Statistics Canada on behalf of Health Canada, measured changes in smoking behaviour following the reduction in tobacco taxes during early 1994. The same respondents aged 15 and over in ten provinces were interviewed four times between May 1994 and February 1995.

[2] For additional information, see A.C. Nielsen, **Measurement of retailer compliance, with respect to tobacco sales-to-minors legislation & restrictions on tobacco advertising, Wave 1 Results**, December 1995.

young people who were high school dropouts smoked.

Bans at work cut smoking Peers and the interpersonal environment influence young people's smoking habits. Most young people attend school and about half have jobs such as baby-sitting, cutting lawns, delivering newspapers or working in stores. Employer restrictions on smoking and the smoking habits of other employees may influence young people. Almost one-quarter (23%) of young current or former smokers who were employed in a workplace with a total or partial ban on smoking, indicated that the restrictions caused them to cut back or quit altogether.



Friends have the biggest influence on smoking behaviour There are many influences on youth smoking behaviour, but some appear to be more powerful than others. When other factors – such as age and parental smoking behaviour – are controlled for, results of data analysis show that friends are the most important predictor of a young person's smoking habits. Teenagers whose friends smoked were sixteen times more likely to be smokers than those whose friends did not smoke. Another important influence is smokers in the home (other than parents): all other things being equal, young people who were exposed to non-parental smokers in the home were about four times more likely to be current smokers.

Compared with friends and other smokers, the impact of parental smoking on their children's smoking behaviour was small. After controlling for other factors, having at least one parent who smoked increased the likelihood of a young person smoking by 40%.

Young people still start to smoke Smoking behaviour among young people is volatile as they experiment with smoking and balance the perceived good and bad effects. They start, quit, start again. Some quit smoking, while still others develop a lifetime smoking habit. Friends, siblings, parents, teachers, employers and other acquaintances all exert influences on a youth's decision to smoke. Over 95% of young people believe that smokers can become addicted to tobacco and that tobacco smoke is also harmful to non-smokers. Four in five did not believe that smokers could quit anytime they wanted to. Despite these widely held beliefs, and all the well-documented health risks associated with the habit, many young people still decide to smoke.

Warren Clark is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends.**

CST

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Heavy drinking and soft drug use more prevalent among smokers

In 1994, Statistics Canada conducted Canada's Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey on behalf of Health Canada. It provided support for the argument that smoking, drinking and illicit drug use are interrelated. Over 40% of 15- to 19- year-old smokers engaged in heavy drinking, compared with 13% of non-smoking teenagers. Marijuana and hash use were also much more common among current smokers than among those who had never smoked.

Young smokers aged 15-19 engaged in other unhealthy behaviours

	Current smoker	Never smoked
	%	
Heavy infrequent drinker[1]	19	7
Heavy frequent drinker[2]	23	6
Used marijuana or hash in the last year	49	12
Used marijuana or hash at least once during the last month	28	4

[1] Drinks less often than once a week, usually five or more drinks when alcohol is used.
[2] Drinks once a week or more frequently, usually five or more drinks when alcohol is used.
Source: Statistics Canada, Canada's Alcohol and Other Drugs Survey, 1994.

briefly...

Population Projections for Census Metropolitan Areas, 1995 to 2000

By the year 2000, the population living in Canada's 25 census metropolitan areas (CMAs)[1] is projected to be 6.2% larger than in 1995. An additional 1.1 million people will bring the number living in CMAs to 19.3 million by the end of the century.

Expect mix of fast and slow population growth across urban Canada Imagine the entire population of St. Catharines-Niagara moving to Toronto. That is about the size of the population increase projected for the Toronto census metropolitan area between 1995 and the year 2000. The population of Toronto is expected to reach 4,721,000 by 2000, a 9% increase over 1995. Oshawa, bordering Toronto, will grow 11% over the same period.

Although Vancouver will remain the third ranking CMA in size (2,057,000 in 2000), its projected population growth is the fastest: a 13% increase is anticipated by the year 2000. Montreal, Canada's second largest CMA, is expected to grow only 3% over this period (to 3,418,000). Ottawa-Hull, the only other CMA with more than one million people, will grow 7% to 1,103,000 by the turn of the century.

Only five other CMAs – Edmonton, Calgary, Québec, Winnipeg and Hamilton – have populations of more than one-half million people. Growth rates within this group vary considerably: for example, Calgary is expected to grow twice as fast (7%) as Edmonton (3%).

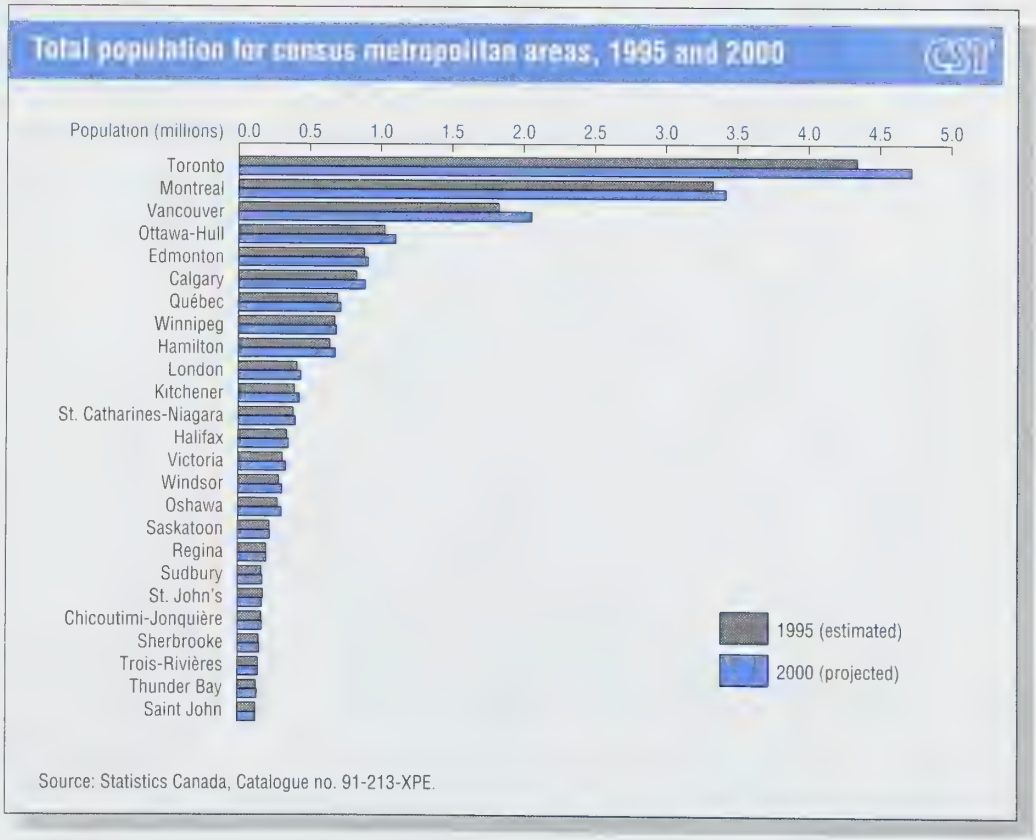
Not all CMAs are expected to grow. The population of St. John's (Nfld.) is expected to decline by almost 4% between 1995 and 2000. This decrease is consistent with the provincial projection, since the population of Newfoundland is also expected to fall by a similar percentage during this period.

The population projections described here were developed using a ratio method. For more information on this technique, as well as information about recent demographic developments in Canada, see **Annual Demographic Statistics, 1995**, (Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-213-XPB). This publication is available from your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre or call 1-800-267-6677.

Early in 1997, CMA population projections by age and sex using a cohort component method will be available from Population Projections Section, Demography Division, Statistics Canada.

[1] A census metropolitan area comprises a very large urban area (urbanized core) of at least 100,000 population, together with adjacent urban and rural areas which have a high degree of economic and social integration with the core.

CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-213-XPE.



Who Gives to Charity?

by Jeffrey Frank and Stephen Mihorean

Since the early 1990s, demand for social and community services has grown; many factors – such as the aging of the population and changes in the structure of the family – have contributed to increased pressure on the social safety net. At the same time, governments at all levels have cut back spending on many social programs. Charities have traditionally filled the gaps left by government social programs, but many charitable organizations are under financial pressure as well. Government funding has declined while donations by individuals have levelled off. In addition, the number of charities operating in Canada has risen since the 1960s, further increasing competition for donors' generosity. As a result, charities are exploring new ways of soliciting contributions, while lobbying for changes to tax laws that would encourage charitable donations.

Who gives to charity? Previous analyses have illustrated quite clearly that people who contribute to charitable organizations tend to be older and to have higher incomes.[1] After describing general trends, this article demonstrates that there are also some notable regional differences in the amounts given by those who donate to charity, along with a variety of other determining factors, including the presence of children, family type and language. Nevertheless, economic factors, generally thought to drive the amount of charitable giving, explain only a small portion of donors' behaviour. Thus, a variety of "human" factors, not captured in the analysis, are likely the keys to the complex process that results in the different amounts of charitable giving.

Number of registered charities has increased dramatically In less than thirty years, the number of registered charities in Canada has more than tripled. As of December 1995, 74,000 charitable organizations were registered with Revenue Canada, up from about 22,500 in 1967. Religious organizations accounted for the largest proportion of registered charities in 1995 (42%), followed by welfare-related organizations (17%), education-related charities (16%), organizations that provide benefits to the community (15%) and health organizations (6%). The largest proportion of registered charities were located in Ontario (35%), followed by Quebec (19%), British Columbia (13%), Alberta (11%) and Saskatchewan (6%).

Charities rely heavily on governments for funding Of the $86.5 billion in revenue taken in by registered charities in 1993, 57% came from governments, mostly at the provincial level. Receipted donations from individuals accounted for 7.6% of these registered charity revenues, while those from corporations made up only 1%. Other sources of revenue for registered charities include fees, investment income, unreceipted donations, gifts from other charities and other income.

Thus, charities rely heavily on governments for the funding needed to do their work. As governments proceed with their programs of fiscal restraint, contributions made by individuals take on greater importance. In fact, the Canadian Centre for Philanthropy estimates that for every 1% cut in government grants and transfers to charities, a 5.8% increase in individual donations would be needed to keep overall funding constant.[2]

Giving to religious organizations has declined According to Statistics Canada's Survey of Family Expenditures, 71% of households gave an average of $513 to charities in 1992. That year, 61% of households gave an average of $210 to non-religious charities, while 38% gave an average of $628 to religious organizations. A decade earlier the proportion of households giving to religious organizations was

[1] See Daniela Lucaciu, "Charitable Donations," **Canadian Social Trends**, Summer 1992.

[2] David Sharpe, **A Portrait of Canada's Charities**, Canadian Centre for Philanthropy, 1994.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

Registered charities defined

For an organization to have charitable status with Revenue Canada, it must be registered. A registered charity must be a nonprofit organization established for the relief of poverty, the advancement of religion, the advancement of education, or other purposes beneficial to the community as a whole in a way which the law regards as charitable. Under federal law, at least 80% of registered charities' expenditures must be devoted to their mandated activities. They may engage in nonpartisan political activities that are consistent with their charitable purpose, provided these activities account for no more than 10% of their overall expenditures.

In 1995, there were 74,000 registered charities in Canada: 91% were charitable organizations, 5% public foundations and 4% private foundations. Charitable organizations generally receive funds for use in their own charitable operations, while public and private foundations generally disburse funds to support the charitable activities of other organizations. Registered charities do not pay taxes and have the right to issue official receipts to individuals and companies that donate money or other gifts. These receipts can then be used by contributors to receive federal charitable donation tax credits.

Federal charitable donation tax credit

The federal charitable donation tax credit is meant to be an incentive for Canadians to give to charity. Up to 20% of a person's net income can be claimed as a deductible donation. Taxpayers receive a tax credit equal to 17% of the first $200[1] donated to charity and 29% on the remaining amount. A charitable donation of $300, for example, would result in a $63 federal tax credit. Charitable contributions can be combined with those of a spouse and accumulated over a maximum period of five years. By combining claims in this way, the amount above $200 earns the higher tax credit.

Furthermore, charitable donations reduce the provincial tax owed. In Quebec, charitable donations can also be claimed on the provincial tax form. Elsewhere, the provincial tax calculation is based on the amount of federal tax payable.

Not everyone, however, takes advantage of these tax breaks. The Canadian Centre for Philanthropy calculates that, in 1993, for every $100 that individuals gave to charities, tax receipts worth $80 were issued and only $43 were claimed by taxpayers. The reasons for this are many: some donors may not understand the purpose of charitable tax receipts, others may lose or overlook their receipts when completing their tax returns, and still others may opt not to claim their donations. As will be shown, economic factors explain only a small part of the size of a donation, suggesting that donors may be driven more by humanitarian concerns than by the promise of a tax break.

[1] This was changed from 17% on the first $250 in 1993.

higher (43%), while the proportion giving to other charitable organizations was the same (61%).

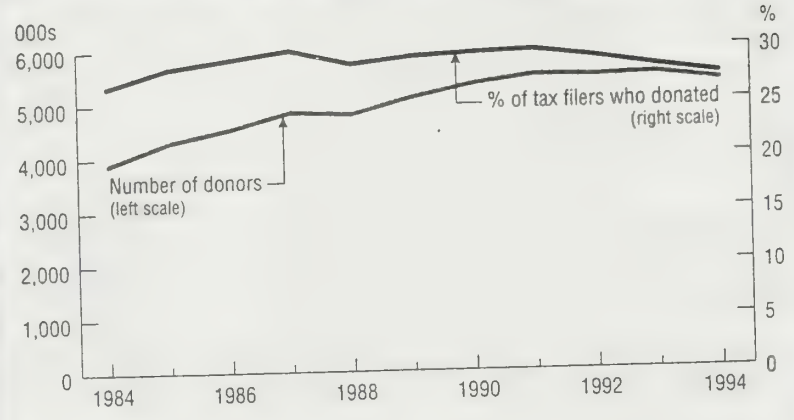
The decrease in giving to religious organizations corresponds with a decrease in the proportion of Canadians reporting a religious affiliation on the census. In 1991, 13% of Canadians had no religious affiliation, up from 7% in 1981. It also corresponds to declining attendance at religious services or meetings. According to the General Social Survey, the proportion of people aged 15 and over attending services at least once a month dropped to 33% in 1994 from 43% in 1985.

Number of charitable donors and total amounts donated have levelled off The Small Area and Administrative Data Division of Statistics Canada maintains information provided by Revenue Canada based on personal income tax returns. According to this information, the number of taxfilers who donate to charity has levelled off since 1991. Between 1984 and 1991, the number of donors increased to 5.5 million from 3.9 million. By 1994, the number had dropped to 5.3 million. This drop is more evident when the number of donors is expressed as a percentage of all taxfilers. In 1991, 30% of taxfilers claimed a charitable donation; by 1994 this proportion had declined to 27%.

Similarly, the total amount donated by individuals to charitable organizations has also levelled off in recent years. Total donations increased to $3.4 billion in 1994, up 33% from $2.5 billion in 1984 (after taking inflation into account). Over the 1984 to 1994 period, the average charitable donation remained relatively stable, ranging between $573 and $653 (in 1994 dollars); in 1994, the average donation was $634.

Percentage of taxfilers who donate has decreased since 1991

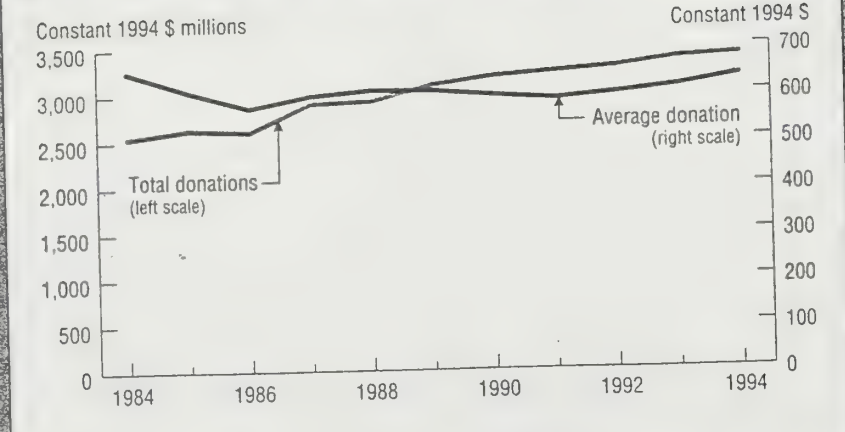
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Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

Little change in average donations by individuals in recent years

CST



Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

Proportion of donors and amounts donated vary by region The proportion of taxfilers who claimed a charitable donation in 1994 varied by province and territory. This proportion ranged from nearly 32% in Prince Edward Island to less than 16% in the Northwest Territories. The median donation of those who received a charitable tax credit also varied, ranging from $250 in Newfoundland to $100 in Quebec.

Dividing median donation by donors' median income provides a rough indicator of charitable giving. However, this indicator includes only donations claimed on tax forms, and only those people who donated in this way are being considered. Using this measure, donors in Newfoundland were most generous, giving 0.9% of their income to charity. The median donation in Quebec, meanwhile, represented only 0.3% of donors' median income. Charitable donations reported on income tax returns have historically been lower in Quebec than in other parts of Canada. This issue is addressed further in the final part of this article.

Characteristics of donor families help explain how much they give The remainder of this article presents the results of a statistical analysis of several factors affecting the amount that families and non-family persons donate to charity. Only those families and non-family persons that reported making a charitable donation on their income tax returns in 1993 were included. Individual taxfilers

from the same family were grouped together, not only because families function as an economic unit, but because donations can be combined with those of a spouse and claimed on one return.

Previous analyses of individual taxfiler data indicate clearly that it is largely income that makes someone a charitable donor. This finding, however, should be reviewed from two perspectives: how well it explains whether or not someone donates, and how big a factor it is in explaining the amount of the donation. When the entire taxfiling population is examined, income explains most of the difference between donors and non-donors. When one looks at only those who have donated to charity (as this study does), income is still a significant predictor of the amount donated. However, income is not the dominant characteristic explaining the donation amount, as it is with the explanation of who is a donor. Region, the presence of children, family type, age of the oldest taxfiler, and the language used for filing returns also had a statistically significant impact on the amounts given by donating families and non-family persons. Overall, these factors were able to explain 15% of the difference between the donations of particular contributing families and non-family persons and the average amount given by donors.

• ***Age affects charitable donations across the country*** The age of the oldest person in the family was universally related to the amount donated to charity. The age effect was greatest in Ontario where each additional year of age resulted in about $16 in additional donations. For example, a family in Ontario contributed $160 dollars more when the oldest member was aged 60 than when the oldest member was aged 50, all other things being equal. Each additional year of age resulted in an increase in charitable donations of nearly $15 in the Atlantic provinces, $13 in Quebec, $10 in British Columbia and $10 in the Prairie provinces.

• ***Income most important in the Atlantic provinces and in Quebec*** Not surprisingly, income also had a statistically significant impact on the amount donated to charity in each region of the country. In Ontario, the Prairie provinces and British Columbia, every additional $1,000 of income resulted

Proportion of individuals who donate, size of donations and incomes of donors in 1994 vary by area CST

	Donors	Median donation/ median income	Median donation of donors	Median income of donors
Province/territory	%	%	$	$
Newfoundland	22.6	0.9	250	27,100
Prince Edward Island	31.7	0.8	220	26,900
Nova Scotia	27.0	0.6	190	31,400
New Brunswick	25.6	0.7	220	30,200
Quebec	25.1	0.3	100	33,000
Ontario	29.5	0.5	170	36,100
Manitoba	31.0	0.6	170	30,400
Saskatchewan	29.8	0.8	220	29,300
Alberta	27.8	0.5	160	34,700
British Columbia	24.8	0.5	160	35,200
Yukon Territory	19.3	0.3	130	44,100
Northwest Territories	15.7	0.3	170	56,600
Census metropolitan area				
St. John's	22.8	0.6	210	33,200
Halifax	30.9	0.4	150	35,700
Saint John	29.3	0.6	190	34,200
Chicoutimi-Jonquière	24.0	0.3	100	34,800
Montréal	25.3	0.3	100	35,000
Québec	31.5	0.2	70	34,900
Sherbrooke	25.9	0.5	140	31,200
Ottawa-Hull (Que.)	28.2	0.2	60	38,000
Trois-Rivières	21.9	0.4	120	33,800
Hamilton	31.7	0.5	190	37,100
Kitchener	32.3	0.6	190	34,000
London	32.4	0.5	180	35,900
Oshawa	31.6	0.3	140	41,900
Ottawa-Hull (Ont.)	35.1	0.3	140	42,200
St. Catharines-Niagara	31.4	0.6	190	34,100
Sudbury	28.3	0.3	130	39,400
Toronto	27.3	0.4	160	37,400
Thunder Bay	30.1	0.4	140	35,500
Windsor	33.0	0.5	200	39,400
Winnipeg	32.8	0.5	150	32,200
Regina	32.9	0.5	170	34,400
Saskatoon	29.7	0.6	200	33,100
Calgary	29.8	0.4	140	37,900
Edmonton	28.7	0.4	140	35,500
Vancouver	25.7	0.4	160	36,100
Victoria	30.5	0.5	160	35,400

Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

in, on average, between $9 and $14 in additional contributions to charity. The effect of income was even greater in the Atlantic provinces and in Quebec where an increase of $1,000 of income resulted in about a $20 increase in donations.

• ***Presence of children resulted in lower charitable donations*** In Quebec, families without children and non-family persons had charitable donations that were $322 higher, on average, than those of families with children. In Ontario, non-family persons and families without children contributed $158 more than did families with children and in Atlantic Canada the difference was $240 more. In other parts of the country, the impact of the presence of children was less noticeable.

• ***Family composition important in some areas but pattern varies*** The impact of family composition on how much donors gave to charity was found to vary in different regions. For example, in Atlantic Canada, a lone-parent family (when all else was equal) gave $500 more than average, while husband-wife families with two filing spouses gave $218 more than average. The pattern was reversed in the Prairies, where husband-wife families with two filing spouses resulted in $517 in additional contributions, compared with $337 above the average for lone-parent families. There were also regional variations in the amounts associated with the same family type. For example, being a husband-wife family with one filing spouse meant giving $306 more than average in Atlantic Canada and $519 more in the

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

CST

A model of charitable donations made by families and non-family persons in Canada

A statistical technique known as multiple linear regression was used to try to explain why some families and non-family persons give more than the average donation and why others give less. Several independent variables were combined to try to account for changes in a dependent variable, in this case, the amount donated to charity. The independent variables are those factors that contribute to variation in the dependent variable. Independent variables included in this study were income, the presence of children, family type, age of the oldest taxfiler and the language used for filing returns.

Only those families and non-family persons that donated money to charity and claimed their donation on their tax return were included in the analysis. Family donation is the sum of all charitable donations made by each family member or the donations of a non-family person. Total family income is the sum of the total incomes of each family member or the individual income of non-family persons.

The following table shows the average effect of particular variables on family donation, when all other variables in the analysis are held constant. Only those results which were statistically significant are presented.

Effect of certain variables on family donations

Characteristics of families and non-family persons	Atlantic	Quebec	Ontario	Prairies	British Columbia
			$		
Increase per thousand dollars of total family income	19.35	21.80	14.26	9.06	10.08
Increase per year of age of oldest family member	14.84	12.81	15.77	9.66	9.83
Increase when no children present compared with families with children	239.74	321.68	157.87	22.38	1.09
Increase (or decrease) compared with average family donations:					
Husband/wife families with two filing spouses	218.45	-112.57	–	517.65	–
Husband/wife families with one filing spouse	306.14	-135.77	–	519.49	–
Common-law family	–	–	–	–	–
Lone-parent family	499.99	–	–	336.51	–
Non-family person	381.71	–	–	426.69	–
English language	209.56	395.50	241.25	–	–

Results presented here are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).
Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division, 1993 T1 Family File, based on tax returns filed in the spring of 1994.



Influences on donating complex The variables available from tax forms do not capture the full complexity of factors affecting the decision to make a charitable donation or the amount of that donation. For example, varying exposure to requests for donations, family traditions, life experiences, and innumerable social and psychological factors can affect the decision to make a contribution. In this sense, this research is preliminary in that only variables found on the tax form were available for this analysis and there is no accounting of the "human" factors involved.

Even so, further work could be done using taxfiler information from Statistics Canada's Small Area and Administrative Data Division. Differences between families that donate and those that do not could be examined using a similar method to the one used in this study. The effect of the interaction between different variables on donations should also be analyzed. For example, the effect of having children changes from one region to another, indicating an interaction between region and the presence of children. In addition, families' donating behaviour over time could be tracked using taxfiler information from the Small Area and Administrative Data Division's Longitudinal Administrative Database.

Prairies. In Quebec, this type of married-couple family was associated with contributions that were $136 less than average.

• ***Tax returns filed in English tend to report higher charitable donations*** Language appears to be related to the amount donated to charity. Its effect is most noticeable in Quebec, where returns filed in English reported nearly $400 more than average in charitable donations. This language effect was also statistically significant in Ontario ($241) and in the Atlantic provinces ($210).

It is possible that the marketing activities of charitable organizations may not be adequately adapted to the linguistic and cultural characteristics of a Francophone audience. Certainly, the amount given to charity is related to the number of times that one is asked to give, and to the effectiveness of those requests. Quebec has a small share of registered charities relative to its population. Most charities in Canada operate out of predominantly English-speaking parts of the country. In addition, many charities are headquartered outside of Canada and operate mainly, or only, in English. This may explain at least some of the language effect uncovered in this analysis.

The lower amounts donated by Francophones may, paradoxically, be associated with the traditionally strong role of the Catholic Church in charitable activities, particularly in Quebec. Most Francophones identified themselves as Catholics (94% on the 1991 Census). However, church attendance has declined, according to the General Social Survey. By 1994, only one-third of all Catholics in Quebec attended church at least once a month, compared with one-half of Catholics in the rest of Canada. This would, therefore, limit the Church's access to a large proportion of its potential contributors.

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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

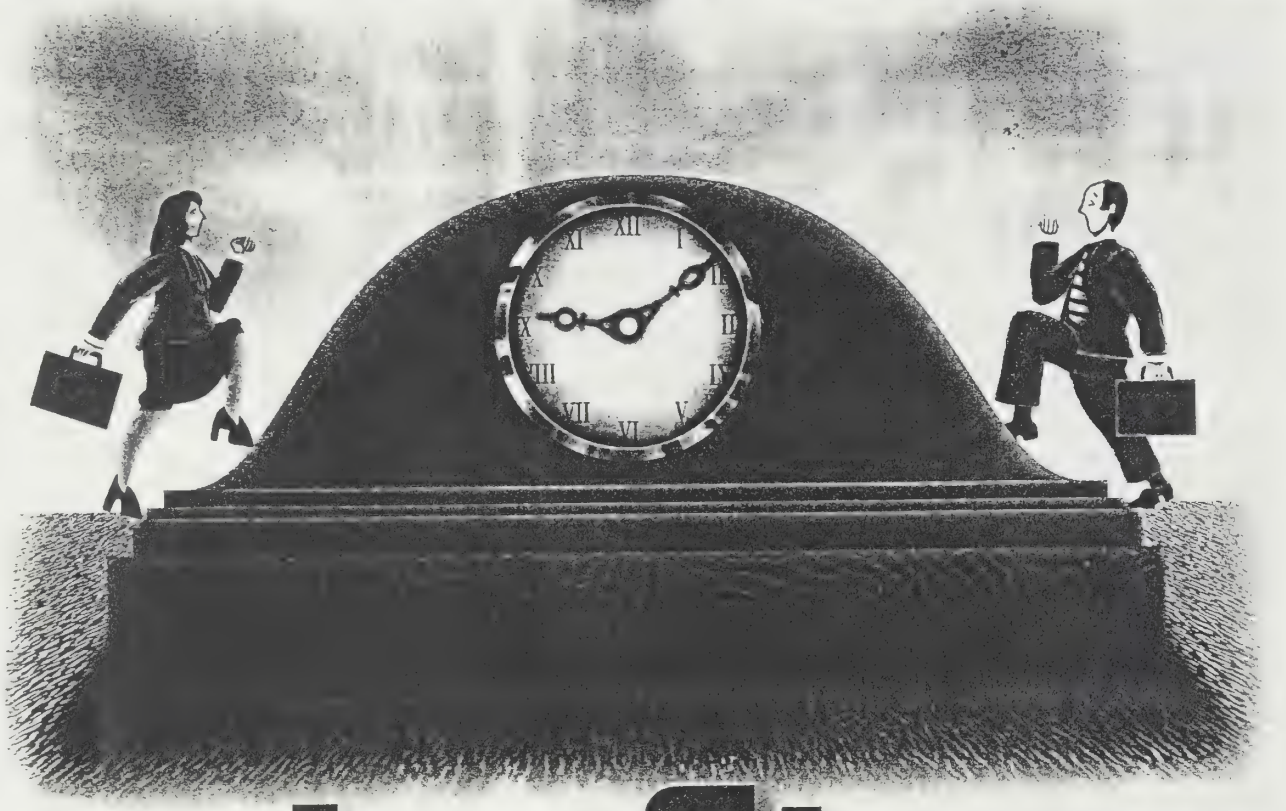
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Working Arrangements and Time Stress



by Janet E. Fast and Judith A. Frederick

Meeting the competing demands of paid work and family roles is a challenge for an increasing number of Canadians. In recent decades, women's labour force activity has increased markedly while men have become somewhat more involved in family and domestic roles. As a result, many people experience conflicts between job and family responsibilities, mostly due to lack of time or energy (or both) to successfully meet all demands. Studies have shown that this work-family conflict can lead to increased stress, poorer health, lost income and missed job advancement opportunities for employees; for employers, it can result in greater absenteeism, higher work-force turnover and lower productivity.

When asked how their workplaces could be made more "family friendly," many Canadians have suggested that they would benefit from working arrangements that allow greater flexibility in the scheduling of hours and the location of the workplace.[1] Specific working arrangements that were mentioned include flexible work schedules, compressed work weeks, part-time work, work-at-home arrangements and job sharing. But do employees' "family-friendly" work arrangements actually help them to balance their paid work and family demands? The 1992 General Social Survey (GSS) provides a first glimpse of the way working arrangements might be related to at least one outcome of work-family conflict – perceived time stress.

Prevalence of various working arrangements differs Three characteristics of working arrangements appear to affect workers' ability to balance work and personal demands and so affect their level of perceived time stress. They are the number of hours worked, the time when hours are worked and the place where hours are worked.[2] Respondents were asked if their working arrangements included any flexibility or departure from the norm – 40 hours per week spread over five weekdays at the employer's place of business. Seven alternate work arrangements were identified: self-employment, part-time employment (less than 30 hours per week), shift work (other than a regular daytime shift), flextime (employees choose when they begin and end their work day), flexplace (employees work some of their regular paid work hours at home), compressed work week (employees work extended hours each day in order to work fewer days per week) and on-call work (employees are obliged to work when specifically requested – nurses, teachers, workers in commodity sales).

Some of these work arrangements are more common than others. Only 9% of respondents worked compressed weeks,

[1] J.L. MacBride-King, **Work and family: Employment challenge of the '90s**, Ottawa: The Conference Board of Canada, November 1990; Ontario Women's Directorate & Camco Inc., **Work and family: Flexible working arrangements**, Toronto, October 1991.

[2] Berna J. Skrypnek and Janet E. Fast, "Work and family policy in Canada: Family needs, collective solutions," **Journal of Family Issues**, vol. 17, no. 6, Fall 1996.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

General Social Survey

The General Social Survey (GSS), conducted annually since 1985, gathers data on social trends and policy issues of current or emerging interest.[1] It covers all persons aged 15 and over residing in Canada, excluding residents of the Yukon and Northwest Territories and full-time residents of institutions. Each cycle of the GSS covers one of five subject areas – health and social support, time use, personal risk, education and work, and family – each of which is repeated every fifth cycle. This study uses data from the second GSS on time use (Cycle 9). Over 9,800 respondents were interviewed between January and December in 1992. The sample used in this study consists of 5,060 respondents aged 15 and over, whose main activity in the twelve months preceding the survey was working at a job or business.

Measuring perceived time stress Respondents to the 1992 GSS were asked a set of ten questions intended to measure their perceptions of time stress. The number of positive responses to these questions represents an overall measure of time stress, with scores ranging from zero (no positive responses) to ten (positive responses to all of the questions). Scores of seven or higher are considered to indicate "high" perceived time stress.

- ❑ **1.** Do you plan to slow down in the coming year?
- ❑ **2.** Do you consider yourself a workaholic?
- ❑ **3.** When you need more time, do you tend to cut back on your sleep?
- ❑ **4.** At the end of the day, do you often feel that you have not accomplished what you had set out to do?
- ❑ **5.** Do you worry that you don't spend enough time with your family or friends?
- ❑ **6.** Do you feel that you're constantly under stress to accomplish more than you can handle?
- ❑ **7.** Do you feel trapped in a daily routine?
- ❑ **8.** Do you feel that you just don't have time for fun any more?
- ❑ **9.** Do you often feel under stress when you don't have enough time?
- ❑ **10.** Would you like to spend more time alone?

[1] Starting in 1998, with the third survey on time use, the GSS will be conducted every two years rather than every year.

while 36% had a flextime arrangement. Also, many respondents had multiple alternate work arrangements. For example, among part-time workers, 25% were self-employed, 46% had flextime arrangements and 33% did on-call work. Similarly, of those who were self-employed, 76% also worked flextime and 60% had flexplace arrangements. In addition, 41% of those with flextime also worked some regular hours at home and 42% of on-call employees worked flextime.

The prevalence of alternate working arrangements differs for men and women. Men were more likely than women to be self-employed (21% versus 14%, respectively), to have flextime (40% and 30%) and to work on call (25% and 19%). There were also some variations in the prevalence of work arrangements depending on the presence of children, especially for women. Women with children were more likely than women without children to work part time (32% versus 23%, respectively), to be self-employed (17% versus 12%), to have flextime (26% versus 18%) and to have flexplace working arrangements (27% versus 16%). Parents were somewhat less likely to work shifts than other men and women.

Parents more time stressed than workers without children Family responsibilities appear to be closely related to time stress. Parents with children under age 19 living at home were more likely to report high levels of time stress than those without dependent children, though the difference was much greater for women than for men. In 1992, 27% of mothers and 18% of fathers reported high time stress, compared with only 17% of childless women and 13% of childless men. The higher rate for women may reflect the fact that although the labour force activity of men and women is increasingly similar, women still retain primary responsibility for family care and domestic work.[3] Interestingly, the age of the youngest child had no significant effect on the level of perceived time stress reported by employed parents.

Some common working arrangements did not affect perceived time stress If some workers are adopting alternate work arrangements in an attempt to find more time for themselves or their families, then some work schemes are not meeting their expectations. Three of the seven alternate work arrangements identified – self-employment, flexplace and shift work – were not related to workers' time stress. In fact, similar proportions of men and women reported high levels of time stress, whether or not they had one of those arrangements. This was true even when the effect of other factors (such as occupation and children) were taken into account. Some working arrangements, however, did seem to be related to levels of perceived time stress.

For many, part-time work reduces time stress About 19% of full-time workers were highly time stressed, compared with just 11% of part-time workers. This held true for both men and women; in fact, women working full time were twice as likely as those working part time (24% versus 12%) to report high levels of perceived time stress. Meanwhile, high time stress was almost three times more common among men working full time (16%) as among those working part time (6%).

For many women, working part time presents a strategy for balancing employment and family demands. According to the Labour Force Survey, many women who choose to work shorter hours do so for family-related reasons.[4] General Social Survey data suggest that working part time is a fairly successful strategy for alleviating time stress. However, part-time workers have made some economic concessions that their counterparts in full-time jobs have not. Part-time work is often marginalized, low-wage work lacking benefits such as extended medical, dental and pension plans; for example, only 27% of part-time workers have employer-sponsored pension plans, compared with 54% of full-time workers. Since the personal incomes of part-time workers are lower than those of full-time workers, families with at least

Percentage of employees with alternate working arrangements CST

		Men			Women		
	All employees	All men	With children	Without children	All women	With children	Without children
Working arrangement				%			
Part-time	12	5	2	7	22	26	18
Self-employed	18	21	20	22	14	17	12
Flextime	36	40	40	40	30	32	29
Flexplace	22	23	24	21	21	27	16
Compressed work week	9	9	9	9	9	8	10
On-call work	22	25	26	23	19	20	19
Shift work	23	25	22	26	21	19	23

Percentages do not total to 100 as some respondents' work arrangements included more than one category.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.

one part-time earner tend to have lower household incomes than those in which both partners work full time. Furthermore, personal self-esteem, independence and decision-making power within the family are often related to the individual's ability to contribute to the family's income.

It is widely believed that it is more acceptable for women to cut back on their paid work hours to meet family obligations and that it is more acceptable for men to accommodate their family life to the demands of their jobs. The reason for this "division of responsibilities" is partly financial: men's contribution to the family income is greater, on average, than women's (56% versus 31% in 1994). Men and women need equal freedom to choose the combination of work and family involvement that best suits them. The evidence presented here suggests that part-time work may help both men and women deal effectively with time stress. However, men are much less likely than women to adopt this strategy.

Women with flextime less time stressed... In 1992, almost one-third (30%) of employed women had a flexible work schedule, and they were less likely to be highly time stressed than women without flextime (18% versus 23%, respectively). Although an even larger proportion of men (40%) had flexible work schedules, flextime did not reduce their perceived time stress (15%).

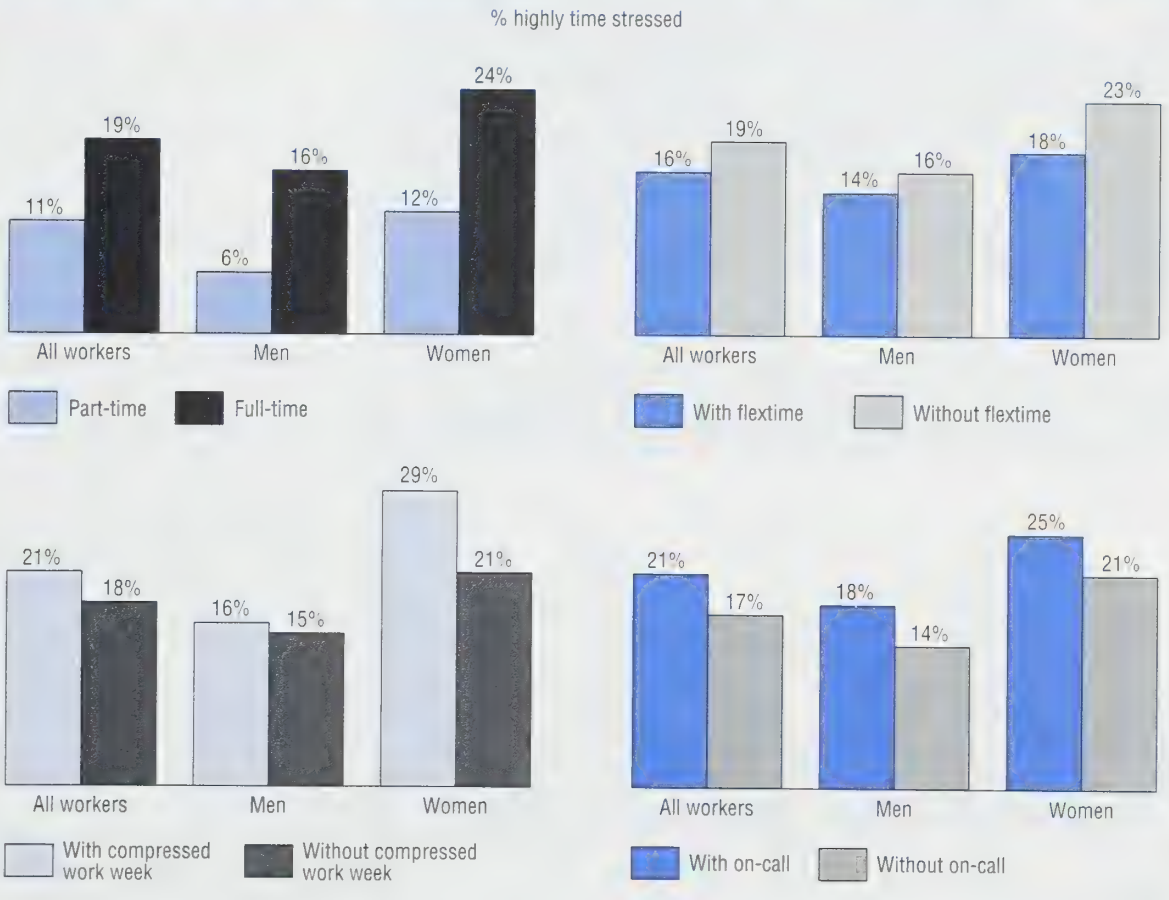
Flexibility in the workplace, especially flexibility with respect to starting and finishing times, is believed to be important for workers trying to manage work and family responsibilities.[5] Indeed, a somewhat larger proportion of women with children than those without were working flextime (32% versus 29%, respectively). Such an arrangement may provide an opportunity for parents to share the twice daily peak demand periods of getting children off to school in the morning, and picking them up and preparing supper in the evening. And, in fact, flextime does appear to be an effective stress reliever, at least for women.

[3] For more information, see J.A. Frederick, **As time goes by...Time use of Canadians**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-544-XPE.

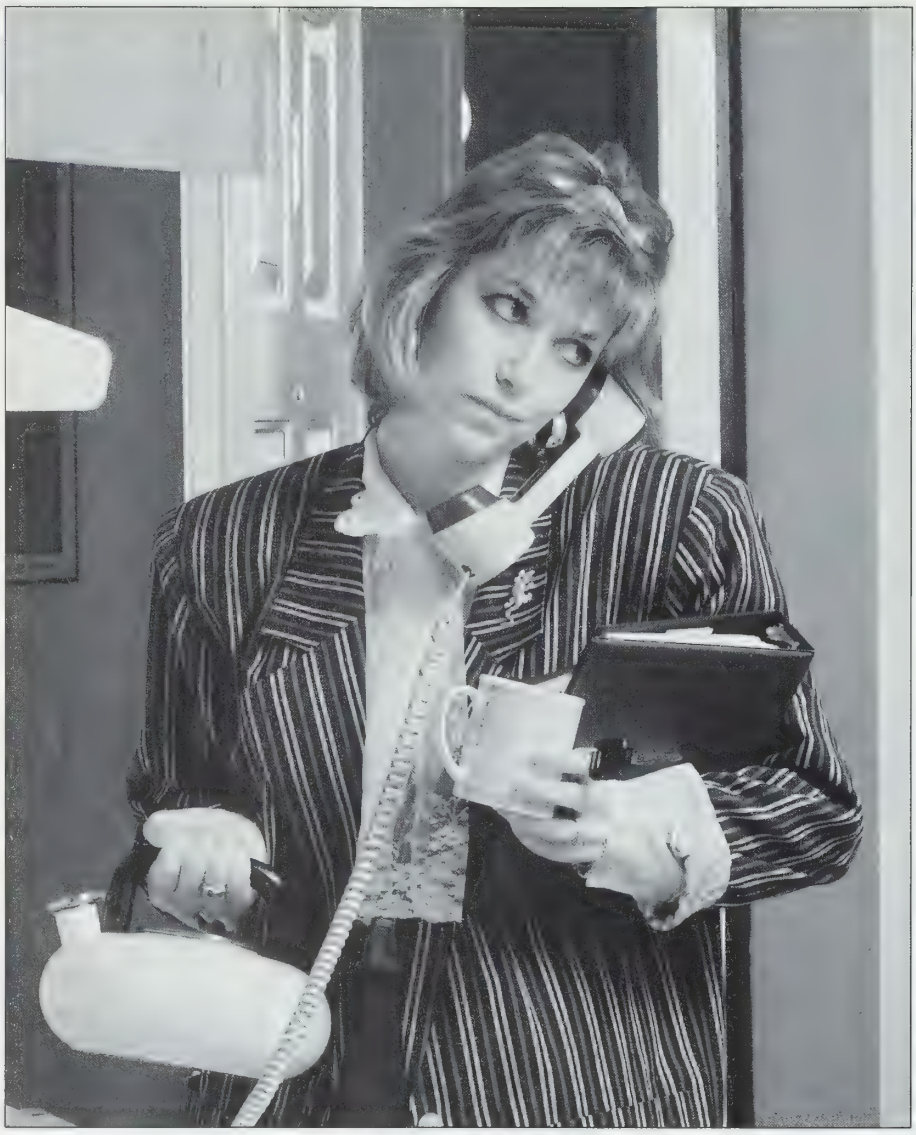
[4] See Ron Logan, "Voluntary part-time workers," **Perspectives on Labour and Income**, Autumn 1994, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.

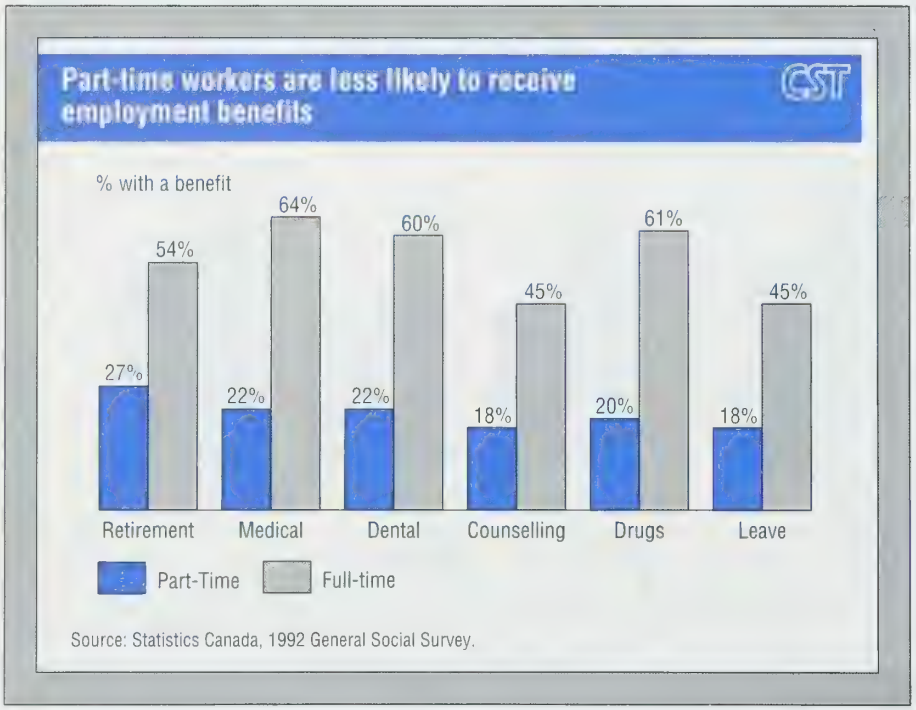
[5] Women's Policy Office, "Women and men in the workplace: A discussion of workplace supports for workers with family responsibilities," 1993 Paper presented at the 12th Annual Conference of Ministers Responsible for the Status of Women.

Workers with compressed work week and with on-call work are most likely to be time stressed CST



Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey.





Yet proportionally fewer women than men have this arrangement. This raises the question of whether access to flextime and other "family-friendly" work arrangements is related to more specific characteristics of employment, such as occupation and full- or part-time work status.

...while those with compressed work weeks more time stressed Even though compressed work weeks have been promoted as a "family-friendly" working arrangement, women using this arrangement are more likely to experience a high level of time stress than women without this work arrangement. Women working extended daily hours in exchange for fewer work days (29%) were more likely to be highly time stressed than women who did not work extended hours (21%). In contrast, compressed work weeks did not influence the proportion of men who reported being highly time stressed; in fact, the stress levels were consistent with most of the other alternate work arrangements.

Many household tasks, such as meal preparation and child care, cannot easily be delayed or re-scheduled. Considering the greater responsibility women have assumed for meeting family demands, a longer day on the job probably makes dealing with peak stress times – morning and after work – even more stressful. There may also be pressure on women to accomplish more at home on their "day off," since many household tasks are continuous and repetitive, making it difficult to say that the work is finished. Perhaps that is why so few women (9%) use this working arrangement.

On-call work associated with higher perceived time stress for men On-call work is not a work arrangement that has been touted as "family friendly," but it appears to be a common experience among Canadian workers. In 1992, 25% of men and 19% of women respondents did some on-call work. Men with on-call jobs were more highly time stressed than those without (18% versus 14%), while differences for women were not statistically significant.

It should not be surprising to find that on-call workers report such high levels of time stress. Not only is on-call work especially incompatible with caring for

children (whose needs may be difficult to cover at short notice), but it probably interferes with personal time and family plans more often than other work arrangements.

Not an issue for workers alone This study has focused on the relationship between people's working arrangements and their levels of perceived time stress. For ease of discussion, this article has reported only the results of direct comparisons between workers who did, and those who did not, use alternative work arrangements. However, these findings are supported even when the effects of other factors are controlled for. For example, employees with flextime arrangements reported considerably less time stress than people who did not work flextime, even if they were very similar in terms of other characteristics. The analysis controlled for factors such as presence of children, occupation, industry of employment, and additional alternate work arrangements they might have had (for example, working part time as well as flextime).

Working arrangements have implications for employers as well as employees. Employers may face higher recruitment and training costs and increased payroll taxes if more employees opt for part-time work. Similarly, they may have to spend more on computer and communications equipment for employees who adopt a flexplace working arrangement. On the other hand, part-time workers may receive fewer benefits, thus lowering employers' costs, while more telecommuting may also reduce the need for costly office space. Similarly, enabling employees to better balance their paid work and family demands may reduce employer costs by reducing absenteeism and workforce turnover. Clearly, costs and benefits for both employers and employees must be considered when making any decisions about workplace policies that relate to working arrangements.

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CST

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

National Child Care Survey

The National Child Care Survey (NCCS) was conducted by Statistics Canada in partnership with the National Daycare Research Network in September and October 1988. A supplement to the monthly Labour Force Survey, it covered households with a child or children under the age of 13. The information gathered addressed most aspects of child care arrangements made by the parent with primary responsibility for arranging child care, 94% of whom were women.

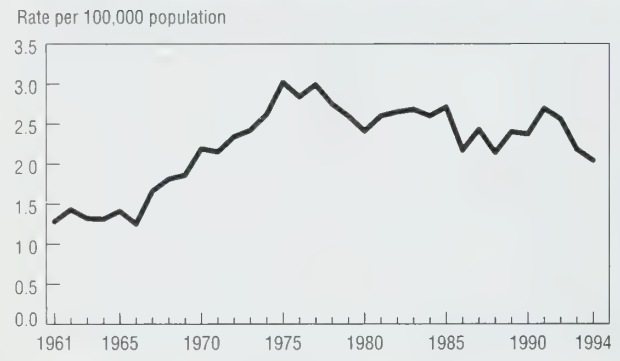
The NCCS offers a valuable insight into the working arrangements that employed parents would *prefer* to have, as opposed to the ones they *actually* have. As such, these findings complement the issues raised in this article. Only one-third (34%) of employed parents with primary responsibility for child care wanted to work full time; the majority (53%) would have preferred to work part time, while 13% wished they did not have to work at all. Perhaps because neither of these options was feasible (73% of parents worked full time), a large minority of parents (39%) wanted to change their work schedules. When asked to select only one child-related benefit their employers could provide that would best support them as parents, nearly one-quarter of working parents (23%) identified child care facilities in the workplace and another one-fifth (19%) cited flexible work hours.

The NCCS also found that parents' employment characteristics were related to their access to family-supportive workplace benefits and arrangements. Parents in skilled occupations (professionals, semi-professionals and technicians) had greatest access to part-time work and job-sharing, while flexible work schedules and paid family responsibility leave were most often available to senior and middle managers. Part-time workers had more access to flexible hours but less to paid leave, suggesting that these parents may be trading paid benefits (such as family leave, or employer-sponsored "top-up" of Unemployment Insurance maternity benefits) for the opportunity to work fewer or more flexible hours.

A series of analytical reports based on the NCCS data is available from Statistics Canada. Data in this Backgrounder were drawn from **Workplace Benefits and Flexibility: A Perspective on Parents' Experiences**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-530-XPE. This report focuses on parents' knowledge and opinions of workplace arrangements that would help them harmonize work and family life.

EXCERPTS FROM A HANDBOOK O

Homicide rate, Canada, 1961-1994



Source: Homicide Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada
For more information, see "Homicide in Canada, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 11

- In 1976, capital punishment was abolished and replaced with a mandatory life sentence for all those offences for which death sentences existed. The amendment also reclassified murder, from capital and non-capital murder to first and second degree murder.
- Since 1961 there have been two distinct trends. Between 1961 and 1975, the homicide rate increased steadily from 1.3 per 100,000 population to a peak of 3.0, an increase of 131%. From 1975 to 1994, despite yearly fluctuations, the homicide rate has gradually declined from 3.0 per 100,000 to 2.0, a decrease of 33%.

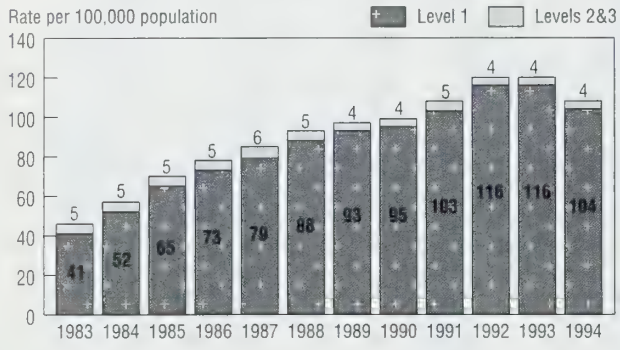
- In 1978, gun control legislation came into effect in Canada. The legislation included the imposition of stricter controls on the issuance of registration certificates which are necessary to acquire restricted weapons such as handguns, the creation of new types of firearm prohibition orders, the creation of new criminal offences in relation to firearm use, and the provision for more severe penalties for the criminal use of firearms.
- While the use of rifles/shotguns in homicides has steadily declined since 1974, they have historically accounted for the majority of firearm homicides. However, in 1991 and 1992, the number of handgun homicides exceeded the number of rifle/shotgun homicides.

Firearm homicides as a proportion of all homicides by type of firearm, Canada, 1974-1994



Source: Homicide Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.
For more information, see "Homicide in Canada, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 11.

Sexual assault incidents, Canada, 1983[1]-1994

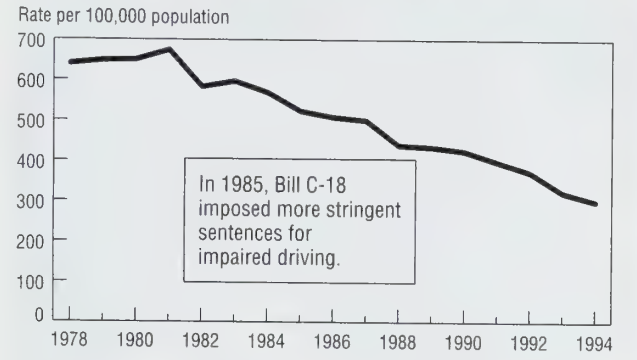


[1] In 1983, Bill C-127 redefined the sexual assault sections of the criminal code and created three levels of sexual assault
Source: Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada
For more information, see "Canadian Crime Statistics, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 12

- In 1983, Bill C-127 redefined the sexual assault sections of the Criminal Code, establishing three levels of sexual assault: level 1 (minor sexual assault); level 2 (incidents involving a weapon or resulting in bodily harm); and level 3 (aggravated sexual assault).
- In 1994, police recorded 31,690 incidents of sexual assault which accounted for 10% of all violent incidents that year. There were 108 incidents of sexual assault reported per 100,000 population in 1994. While the average annual increase in the rate between 1983 and 1994 was 10%, the rate between 1993 and 1994 decreased by 10%.

Crime and Justice in Canada

Rate of persons charged with impaired driving, Canada, 1978-1994

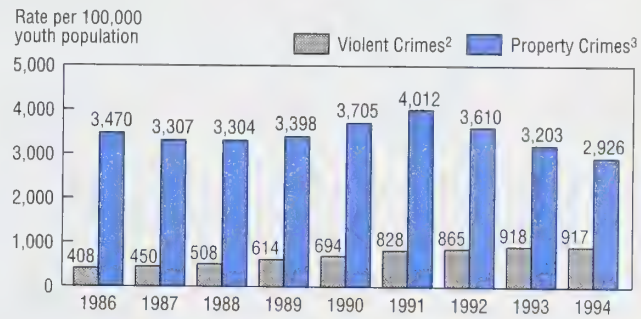


Source: Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.
For more information, see "Impaired Driving in Canada, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 14

- In 1985, Bill C-18 imposed more stringent sentences for drinking and driving. Despite the severity of penalties, impaired driving offences are highly sensitive to changes in police enforcement practices.
- 1994 marked the eleventh consecutive annual decrease in the rate of persons charged with impaired driving. Between 1978 and 1993, the average annual decrease in the rate of persons charged with impaired driving was 4%.

- The *Young Offenders Act* (YOA) came into effect in 1984, replacing the *Juvenile Delinquents Act*. At this time, 12 became the minimum age requirement for criminal responsibility under the YOA. However, it was not until 1985 that the maximum age of 17 (up to the 18th birthday) was established in all provinces and territories.
- The rate of youths charged with violent crimes in 1994 decreased by less than 1% below the previous year, marking the first year since 1986 where the rate showed no increase. Between 1986 and 1994, there has been an average annual increase of 11% in the rate of youth charged in violent incidents.
- The rate of youths charged in property crimes in 1994 decreased 9% below the previous year, marking the third consecutive annual decline. Between 1986 and 1994, there has been an average annual decrease of 2% in the rate of youth charged in property crimes.

Rate of youths charged[1] by type of crime, Canada, 1986-1994



[1] Rates based on youth population 12 to 17 years of age.
[2] Violent crime includes homicide, attempted murder, physical and sexual assaults, other assaults, robberies and abduction.
[3] Property crime includes breaking and entering, theft of motor vehicles, theft over $1,000, theft $1,000 and under, possession of stolen goods, and fraud
Source: Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada
For more information, see "Canadian Crime Statistics, 1994," **Juristat**, Catalogue no. 85-002, Vol. 15, No. 12

These charts and highlights were selected from **A Graphical Overview of Crime and the Administration of Justice in Canada**, *Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85F0018XPE. It is also available in electronic format (Statistics Canada Product no. 85F0018XDE). To order, contact your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre or call 1-800-267-6677.*

This 215-page reference tool contains more than 80 graphs and charts illustrating current and historical data from a number of Statistics Canada surveys. They include: crime, police administration, adult and youth court activity, the correctional population, costs of the criminal justice system, international victimization, violence against women, as well as Canadians' experiences with crime and their perceptions and fears of crime. Each graphic is accompanied by a short explanatory text.

This report is ideal for lectures and overheads, and as a teaching aid for secondary and post-secondary social studies, law, criminology and sociology classes.

Language & Culture of the Métis People

by Josée Normand



The 1982 Constitution recognizes three Aboriginal peoples in Canada – the Indian, the Inuit and the Métis. While general knowledge of North American Indians and Inuit has grown in recent years, the non-Aboriginal public knows comparatively little about the Métis. Perhaps this is because defining the Métis people can be difficult. In previous centuries, the term "Métis" was commonly used to describe people of mixed Indian and French or Indian and British ancestry; for some Métis people, however, it has a more specific historical and geographical meaning. Considering themselves neither Indian nor White, the Métis' dual heritage is evident in their present-day lifestyle, including language, dress, music, dance and spirituality. This article draws on Statistics Canada's 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey to provide a brief linguistic portrait of the Métis and outline their participation in traditional Aboriginal activities.

Métis presence strongest in the Prairies In 1991, over 135,000 Canadians – more than one in five Aboriginal people – identified themselves as Métis, as measured by the Aboriginal Peoples Survey. In common with the other Aboriginal peoples, they are a very young population: well over one-third (38%) of the Métis people were under the age of 15 in 1991, compared with only 21% of the general Canadian population.

Many historians consider the Métis to be linked to the Red River Métis of Manitoba. Indeed, most Métis consider the Prairies their historic homeland and their ties to the West are very strong. In 1991, almost three-quarters of self-identified Métis lived in the Prairie provinces – 29% in Alberta, 25% in Manitoba and 20% in Saskatchewan. Outside the Prairies, the Métis people were most numerous in Ontario (9%).

The Métis are the most heavily urbanized of the Aboriginal peoples. In 1991, about 65% of the self-identified Métis population lived in urban areas, compared with 48% of North American Indians.[1] Many lived in large urban centres; in fact, more than one in five Métis lived in either the Winnipeg (15,000) or Edmonton (13,500) census metropolitan areas (CMAs). Many Métis were also residents of Saskatoon (5,500), Calgary (4,300) and Regina (3,700).

In 1991, only 1% of self-identified Métis lived on lands designated for Aboriginal peoples, compared with 36% of North American Indians. The Métis people tend to live in urban areas more so than other Aboriginal peoples mainly because they have no legally recognized land base. Land is being allocated in some provinces, however, and land claims negotiations are underway in the Northwest Territories. For example, eight Métis settlements in Alberta and several parcels of land in Saskatchewan have been designated as Métis land, while Ontario has allocated reserve land and recognized, as Registered Indians, some members of the Métis population of Rainy River.[2]

English and French the mother tongue of many Métis For many Métis, the language of their community is English or French, an inheritance from their European ancestors. Not only did all Métis aged 15 and over speak at least one official language in 1991, both English and French were spoken by 14%, a rate much higher than that reported by North American Indians (6%). The ability to speak both official languages was much more common among older Métis: those aged 65 and over were almost three times more likely to speak both official languages than those aged 15 to 24.

Given their European heritage, perhaps it is not surprising that only 18% of Métis aged 15 and over, compared with 39% of North American Indians, could converse in an Aboriginal language. Most spoke either Cree (70%) or

Métis and North American Indian populations, by size of area of residence, 1991

	Métis		North American Indian	
	000s	%	000s	%
Canada	135	100	461	100
On-reserve	2	1	166	36
Urban	88	65	219	48
Rural	45	34	76	16

Source: Statistics Canada, **A Profile of the Métis**, Catalogue no. 89-547-XPE.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

The Aboriginal Peoples Survey

The 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey (APS) was developed in consultation with Aboriginal organizations and federal, provincial, territorial and municipal government departments. It collected detailed information about people who identified themselves as North American Indian, Métis or Inuit, and/or were Registered Indians according to the *Indian Act of Canada*. The sample for the APS was chosen using the 1991 Census of Population question on ethnic origin. Individuals who reported on the census questionnaire that they had Aboriginal ancestry, and/or were registered according to the *Indian Act*, were contacted; however, only those individuals who *self-identified* with an Aboriginal group were interviewed for the survey. In other words, while the census measured everyone's ethnic background, the APS measured only those individuals who explicitly described themselves as belonging to an Aboriginal group. Although there is much debate about the definition of the Métis people, and the APS was criticized in some quarters, it still offers a valuable source of information, illuminating the distinct character of the Métis people.

• For more information, see the "User's Guide to 1991 Aboriginal Data," or contact the Aboriginal Data Unit of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, 7th Floor Jean Talon Building, Ottawa K1A 0T6.

[1] For the sake of brevity, this article does not compare the Métis with the Inuit, who account for only 6% of the total Aboriginal population.

[2] Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples, **Sharing the Harvest: The Road to Self-Reliance**, Ottawa, 1993.

Ojibwa (16%). However, about 6% spoke Michif, an exclusively oral *lingua franca* developed by the Métis from many languages – among them Chippewa, English, Gaelic and Assiniboine – but dominated by French and Cree.[3]

The fact that young Métis adults were least likely to speak an Aboriginal language in 1991 – 8% of 15- to 24-year-olds, compared with 54% of seniors – suggests that these languages are being passed to fewer Métis with each successive generation. In fact, 6% of Métis aged 15 and over could no longer converse in an Aboriginal language they had once spoken. The most common reasons reported for this loss were lack of contact with others who spoke the same language (46% of former speakers) and simply forgetting it (31%). However, about 9% of former speakers cited the fact that they had been forbidden to use their language.[4]

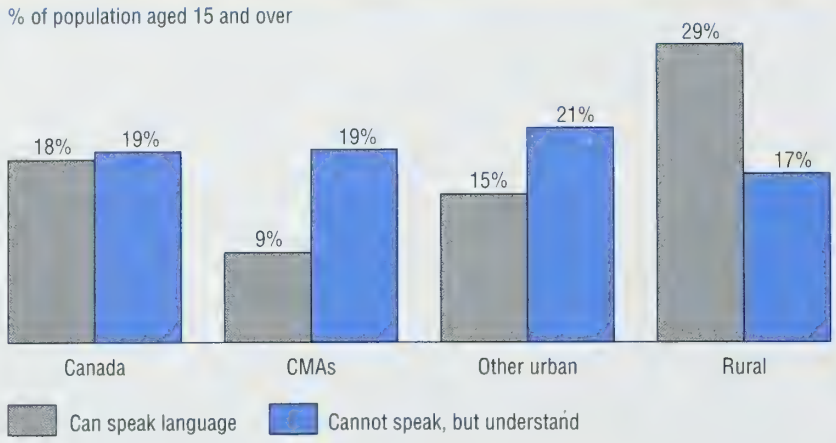
The urban Métis population, particularly in CMAs, was somewhat less likely to speak an Aboriginal language – 12% of those aged 15 and over, compared with 29% of Métis living in rural areas in 1991. It seems probable that a rural area better preserves the close community contact necessary to maintain verbal fluency in an endangered language. This suggestion is supported by data showing that 20% of urban and 17% of rural Métis understood an Aboriginal language, even though they did not speak it.

Official languages spoken by Métis and North American Indian populations aged 15 and over, 1991

	Métis			North American Indian		
Age group	English only	French only	Both English and French	English only	French only	Both English and French
		%			%	
15 and over	82	4	14	86	4	6
15 – 24	88	3	9	90	4	5
25 – 44	82	3	14	88	4	7
45 – 64	77	5	17	82	5	7
65 and over	64	3	26	70	5	6

Figures may not add due to rounding.
Source: Statistics Canada, **A Profile of the Métis**, Catalogue no. 89-547-XPE.

Métis in rural areas were most likely to speak an Aboriginal language



Source: Statistics Canada, 1991 Aboriginal Peoples Survey.

Many Métis tune in to Aboriginal-language media The fact that more people understand than speak an Aboriginal language may help to explain the use of Aboriginal-language media in the Métis community. In 1991, over 80% of Métis aged 15 and over reported that some type of Aboriginal-language media – television, radio, recordings or videos – was available where they lived. Métis with access to native media were less likely to use it than North American Indians; for instance, 36% of Métis watched Aboriginal-language television programs, compared with 41% of Indians, and 20% versus 31% respectively, listened to radio. Interestingly, native broadcast media are less readily available in areas where Aboriginal languages are more commonly spoken in the community. For example, 83% of Métis living in urban centres had access to Aboriginal-language television, compared with 70% in rural areas. To a smaller extent, the same was true of Aboriginal-language radio,

[3] Michif possesses "a pattern of combination which is most unusual, and in its way, very rigorous." John C. Crawford (ed.), **Michif Dictionary: Turtle Mountain Chippewa Cree**, Pemmican Publications, Winnipeg, 1983.

[4] Missionaries, teachers and the non-native community actively discouraged the Métis, especially children, from using the Michif language. The Métis National Council, **The Métis Nation**, Vol. 2, no. 2, November 1993.

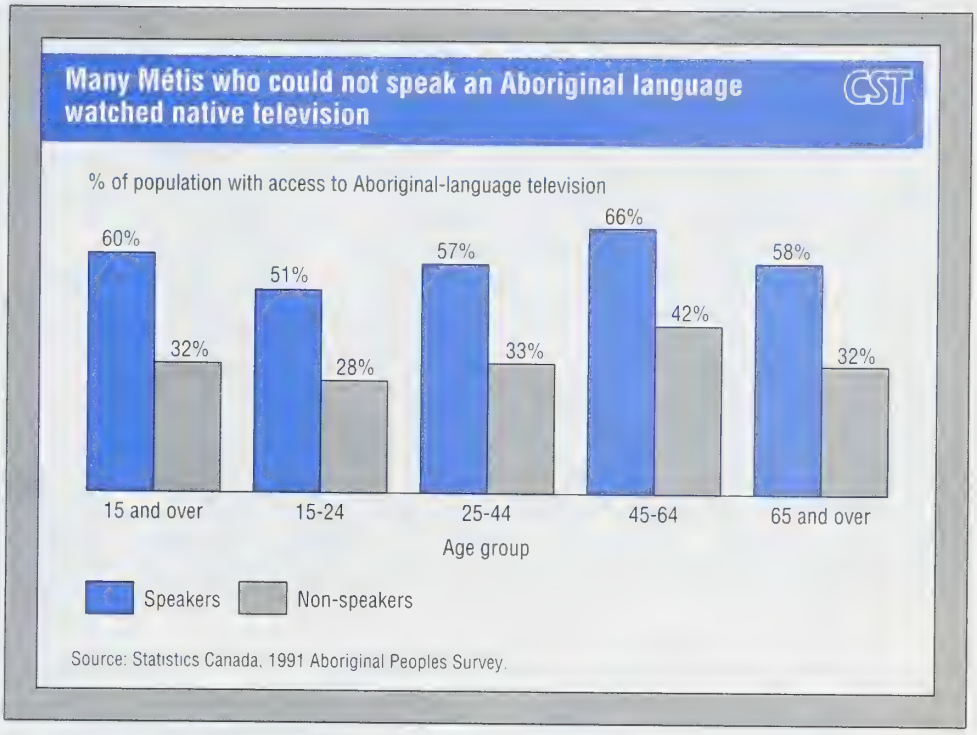
which was received by 85% of Métis in towns and cities and 82% of those living in rural areas.

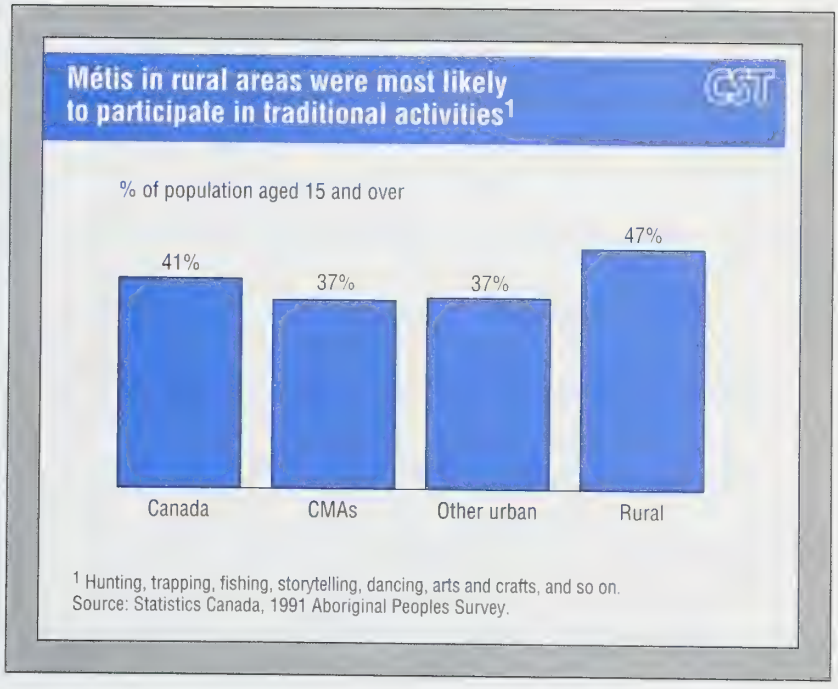
A considerable proportion of Métis who did not actually speak an Aboriginal language were among those using native media. For example, 60% of Métis who could speak an Aboriginal language watched native TV, but so did 32% of those who could not. The figures are even more startling in terms of the actual television audience: 72% of the 26,000 Métis tuning in to native TV could not converse in the language of the programs they were watching. As one would expect, the older the viewing audience, the more likely that they could speak an Aboriginal language – 48% of those aged 45 and over compared with only 19% of those aged 15 to 44.

Aboriginal languages used more often in the classroom Education is an important medium by which a community's language and traditions are passed from one generation to another. Much of this teaching may be done informally within the family, but formal education can also play a role. However, in 1991, only 10% of Métis children aged 5 to 14 had been taught in an Aboriginal language in elementary school, compared with 26% of North American Indian children. Métis children were also considerably less likely to have had Aboriginal teachers, at only 22% compared with 41% of North American Indian children. These differences most probably reflect the more urban character of the Métis population – Métis children are simply less likely to attend native schools than other Aboriginal children.

At the same time, the APS data suggest that efforts are being made to introduce a stronger Aboriginal presence in the schools. Though only a small minority of Métis children under age 15 had encountered an Aboriginal language or teacher in the classroom, an even smaller percentage of older Métis aged 15 to 49 had done so when they had attended elementary school. A total of only 4% had been taught in an Aboriginal language and only 16% had had an Aboriginal teacher.

Participation in traditional activities Traditional activities are another expression of the Métis culture. In 1991, many self-identified Métis aged 15 and over – almost 41% – participated in activities traditional to the Aboriginal community. These included economic activities – hunting, fishing and trapping – and cultural ones – storytelling, traditional dancing, fiddle playing, jigging and doing arts and crafts. Interestingly, younger people were more involved than older Métis: 42% of Métis aged 15 to 44 took an active part in traditional activities, while only 37% of those aged 45 and over did so. In contrast, over half of North American Indians in the two age groups (54% in each) participated in traditional activities. In this case, the differences do not appear to stem from the urban concentration of the Métis, since even Métis in rural areas were much less likely to take part in traditional Aboriginal activities, at 47% compared with 62% of North American Indians.







Hunting, trapping and fishing are important traditional Aboriginal activities, and with no legally recognized land base, the Métis people are currently subject to the same restrictions on these activities as non-Aboriginal people. Nevertheless, in 1991, about 13% of the Métis population (17% rural and 9% urban) lived away from home for at least a week to hunt, trap, fish or otherwise participate in traditional activities. Most were away for a relatively short time, but one-third (34%) were absent for more than four weeks. Hunting and fishing, even if only for a few weeks, are notable because fish and game supplement the diet of more than half of the Métis community. For 13% of Métis aged 15 and over, hunting and fishing supplied over half of their meat and fish, and for an additional 40% of the community, at least some of their meat and fish.

Out of their dual ancestry, the Métis people have created a distinct cultural life. English or French is the mother tongue of many Métis, and only about one in five can speak an Aboriginal language, but another one in five can understand a native language. Thus, outsiders observe apparent contradictions, such as a large Métis audience for Aboriginal-language television, even though only one-quarter of the viewers can conduct a conversation in the language of the broadcast. Two-thirds of Métis live in urban areas – many in cities of 100,000 or more – yet over half eat fish and game obtained through hunting and fishing. The most active participants in traditional Aboriginal activities are not the older members of the community, but those under the age of 45. The Métis people's ties to Aboriginal culture may not be as strong as those of North American Indians, but there is no doubt that they are a unique community with a clear desire to sustain and strengthen their culture and traditions.

• For more information, see **A Profile of the Métis**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-547-XPE.

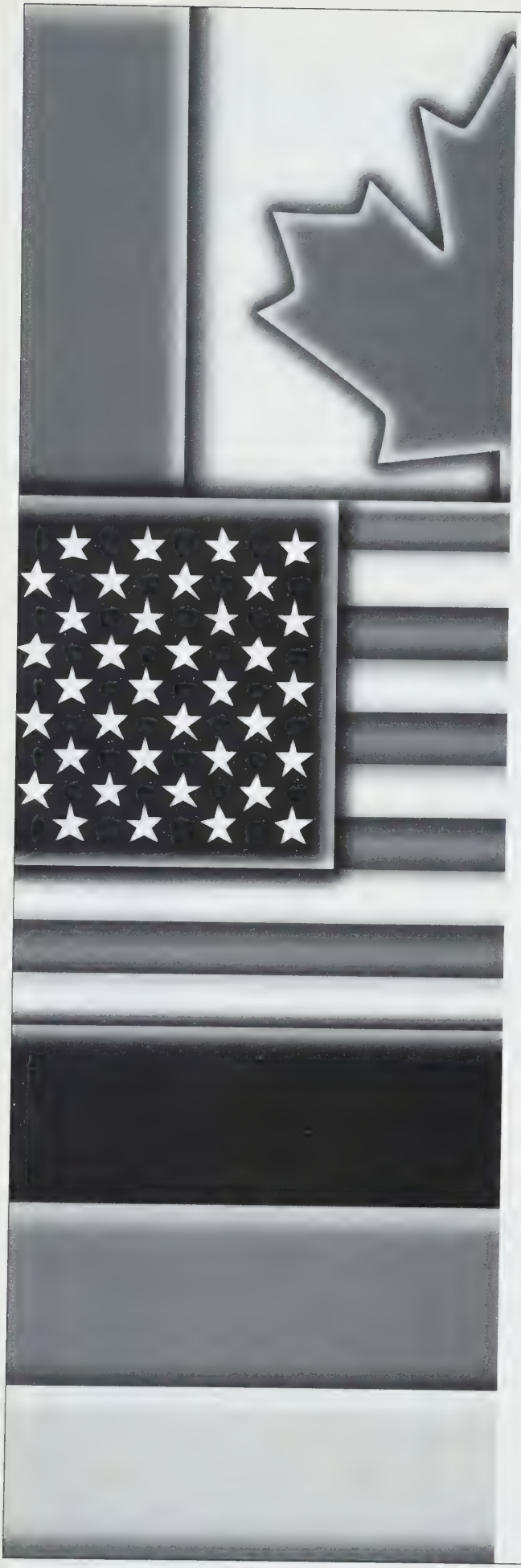
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Adult Literacy in Canada, the United States and Germany

by Warren Clark

Modern society is increasingly dependent on information processing and communication technologies. The emerging information economy places greater demands on individuals to locate, read, understand and process complex information in various forms both on the job and in everyday life. Literacy skills are an important component of learning and keeping pace with change. Without them, skills in other areas are difficult to acquire because so much of modern communication depends on printed and written documents. Thus, literacy skills often define an individual's social and economic opportunities.

The International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) is the first survey to measure literacy skills of adults across diverse sub-groups in several industrialized countries. Unlike past measures of literacy, which used highest level of schooling to separate the literate from the illiterate, the IALS measured literacy as a continuum of successive skills categorized into five levels. The lowest skill level was called "Level 1" and the highest, "Level 5."

The IALS defined literacy as the ability to understand and use printed and written documents in daily activities to achieve goals, and to develop knowledge and potential. The survey assessed adult literacy in three separate areas: prose, document and quantitative skills. All three measure the information-processing skills of respondents – the ability to locate, integrate, construct and generate information – but the emphasis is somewhat different for each type.

- *Prose literacy tasks* assessed the ability to understand and use information from texts that included product labels, owner's manuals, pamphlets, newspaper articles and written announcements. These tasks may ask the reader to find information, match it, make an inference, integrate two or more pieces of information or generate a written response after processing information in the text.

- *Document literacy tasks* assessed the ability to locate and use information in a variety of displays including tables, graphs, maps, order forms, application forms and transportation schedules. Sometimes, familiarity with applications or forms was required for success at document literacy tasks.

- *Quantitative literacy tasks* assessed the ability to locate and extract numbers from different types of printed documents and perform arithmetic operations that are inferred from printed directions. For example, quantitative tasks required respondents to adjust quantities in a recipe, figure out how much to tip for a restaurant meal, balance a chequebook or calculate interest on a loan based on a compound interest table.

This article compares some of the first findings of the IALS for Canada, the United States, our largest trading partner, and Germany, the principal economic power of Europe. Overall, Canada and the United States had similar distributions of literacy skill levels, with the United States having a slightly larger proportion at the lowest literacy level. In all three literacy areas, prose, document and quantitative, Germany had a higher percentage of respondents with mid-level literacy scores and smaller proportions at the extremes than North Americans.

The literacy skills of Canadian and American adults differed little between prose, document and quantitative scales. Germans, however, scored higher in quantitative literacy than they did in prose or document literacy.

The majority of Canadians have adequate literacy skills Almost three out of five Canadians aged 16 to 65 had sufficient prose, document and quantitative literacy skills to meet most everyday requirements in dealing with printed documents (Level 3 or higher). One in four Canadians had Level 2 skills. While these people generally believed they had good or excellent reading, writing and numeracy skills, their test scores were weak. About one in six Canadians had Level 1 prose, document and quantitative literacy skills, which meant they had serious difficulty in dealing with printed materials.

American adults had slightly lower literacy skills than Canadians In the United States, about half of the adult population had prose, document and quantitative skills at the top three literacy levels, meaning that they met a wide range of reading demands. About one in four Americans had Level 2 literacy skills. One in five had prose and quantitative literacy skills at Level 1, while one in four had document literacy skills at that level.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER CST

International Adult Literacy Survey

Seven countries – Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland (French and German speaking areas only) and the United States – participated in the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), Statistical Office of the European Communities (EUROSTAT), and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) assisted in the development of the survey. In addition to Statistics Canada, Canadian collaborators were the National Literacy Secretariat and the Applied Research Branch of Human Resources Development Canada.

The civilian, non-institutional population aged 16 to 65 was surveyed in the autumn of 1994. Some countries, including Canada, added older adults to their samples. For international comparisons, only the 16- to 65-year-old population is reported in this article. In Canada, about 4,000 people responded in English and 1,700 in French. In other countries, the number of respondents varied from 2,100 (Germany) to 3,100 (United States).

Testing of literacy tasks ensured no bias favoured one particular country or language group, thereby allowing comparisons among the seven participating countries. However, each country differs in many ways including: demographics, formal education system, geographic distribution, industrial composition, immigration patterns and cultural traditions. It is difficult, therefore, to rank countries on the basis of literacy scores without understanding this context.

Literacy levels

The survey measured prose, document and quantitative literacy skills on scales from 0 to 500. These scales were categorized into five broad literacy levels, with Level 1 being the lowest and Level 5 being the highest. Levels 4 and 5 are combined in many places throughout this article to ensure data reliability.

The population assessed at Level 1 literacy possessed very limited literacy skills. Some at this level showed the ability to find a single piece of information from a written text or graphic form, or perform simple arithmetic operations using numbers that were presented simply. Others at this level demonstrated such limited skills that they could perform only some Level 1 literacy tasks, while others were unsuccessful at all tasks.

Level 2 of prose literacy required respondents to locate information in a text which may contain several distracters, make low level inferences, integrate two or more pieces of information, or compare and contrast information. Respondents assessed at this level could deal with simple printed material which was clearly laid out, but had difficulty with more complex documents such as reading a bicycle owner's manual to check if the seat was in the proper position. People in this category may have adapted their lower literacy skills to their everyday life, but might have difficulty learning new job skills involving more complex literacy skills.

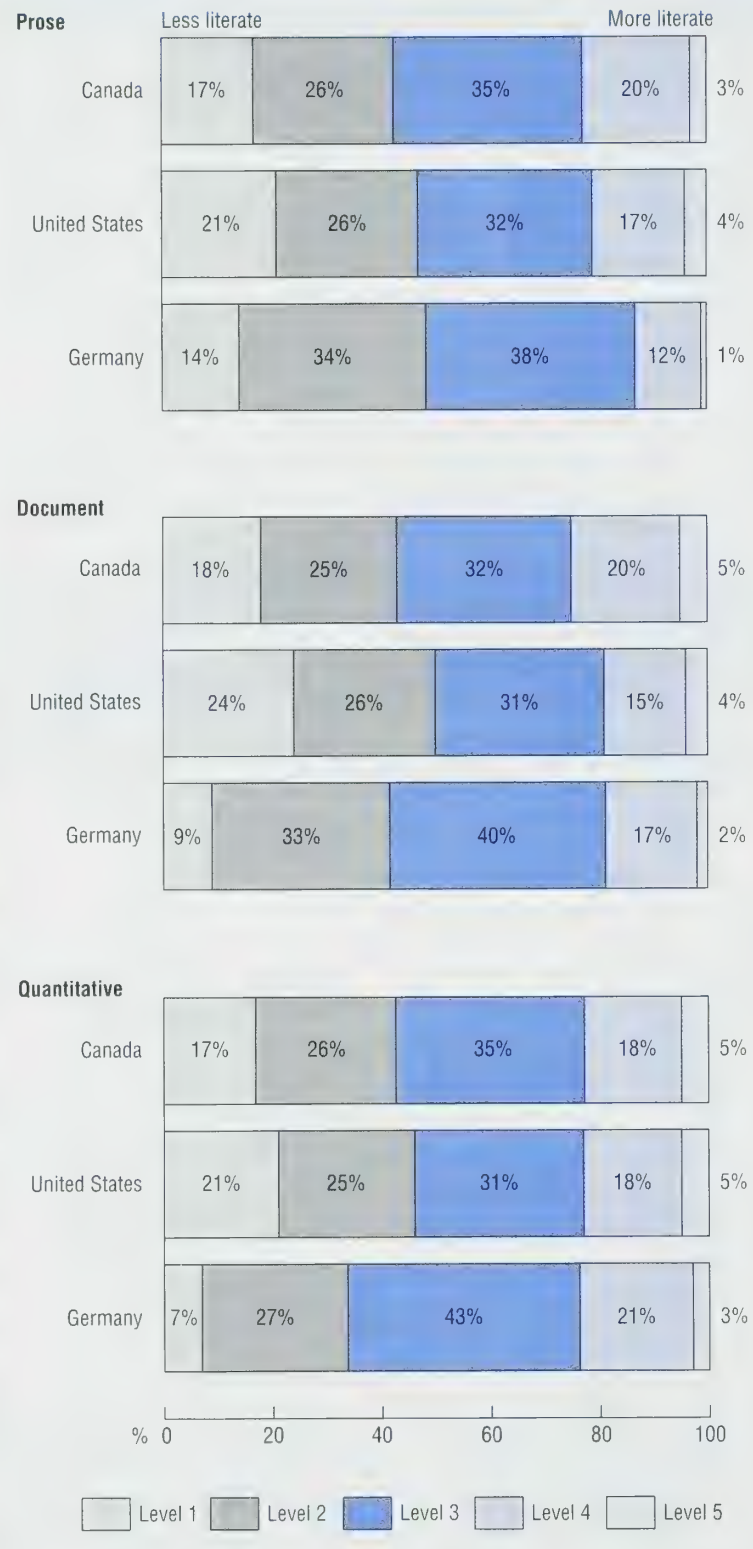
Levels 3, 4 and 5 required increasingly higher literacy skills. Literacy tasks at these levels required the ability to integrate several sources of information, solve more complex problems and extract information from more complex texts. Text often contained more distracting information and was in a more abstract form.

Sample literacy tasks

Level	Prose	Document	Quantitative
1	Use the instructions on a medicine bottle to identify the maximum duration recommended for taking aspirin.	Identify the percentage of Greek teachers who are women by looking at a simple pictorial graph.	Fill in the figure on the last line of an order form, 'Total with Handling,' by adding the ticket price of $50 to a handling charge of $2.
2	Identify a short piece of information about the characteristics of a garden plant, from a written article.	Identify the year in which fireworks injured the fewest Dutch people, when presented with two simple graphs.	Work out the temperature difference in today's forecast high temperature in Bangkok and Seoul, using a table accompanying a weather chart.
3	State which of a set of four movie reviews was the least favourable.	Identify the arrival time of the last bus on a Saturday night, using a bus schedule.	Work out how much more energy Canada produces than it consumes, by comparing figures on two bar charts.
4	Answer a brief question on how to conduct a job interview, requiring the reader to read a pamphlet on recruitment interviews and integrate two pieces of information into a single statement.	Summarize how the percentages of oil used for different purposes changed over a specified period, by comparing two pie charts.	Calculate how much money you will have if you invest $100 at a rate of 6 percent for 10 years, using a compound interest table.
5	Use an announcement from a personnel department to answer a question that uses different phrasing from that used in the text.	Identify the average advertised price for the best-rated basic clock radio in a consumer survey, requiring the assimilation of several pieces of information.	Use information from a table of nutritional analysis to calculate the percentage of calories in a Big Mac® that comes from total fat.

Source: Statistics Canada, International Adult Literacy Survey, 1994.

North Americans aged 16 to 65 were more likely to have Level 1 or 5 literacy skills than Germans in 1994



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

Germans excelled in quantitative skills On average, Germans had higher quantitative literacy skills than North Americans. Two-thirds scored in the top three levels on the quantitative scale. Half of Germans had prose literacy skills in the top three levels and 58% scored high in document literacy. About a third of Germans were at Level 2 on the prose and document scale, and one-quarter scored at this level on the quantitative scale. About one in fifteen had Level 1 quantitative literacy skills compared with one in six Canadians and one in five Americans. One in eleven Germans had Level 1 document skills, while one in seven had Level 1 prose literacy.

Literacy differences between genders varied Gender differences were small in some countries, large in others and varied from one literacy scale to another. In North America, women outscored men in prose literacy. Sixty-one percent of Canadian women scored at Level 3 or higher in prose literacy, compared with 54% of men. In the United States, 57% of women and 50% of men had prose literacy at the top three levels. Document literacy scores for men and women were nearly equal in Canada and the United States.

In every country, men outscored women in quantitative literacy. In Canada, the gender difference was very small where 58% of men and 56% of women had Level 3 or higher quantitative skills. The difference in quantitative skills was greater in the United States and Germany where 57% of American men and 72% of German men had level 3 or higher quantitative skills, compared with 51% of American women and 62% of German women.

In Germany, men outscored women on all three literacy scales. In prose literacy, the difference was small with 53% of men and 50% of women having skills at the top three levels. The literacy advantage of German men over women increased to six percentage points for document literacy and to ten percentage points for quantitative literacy. The lower literacy scores among German women may be because German women have historically been less likely than men to pursue post-secondary education.

Older adults have lower literacy skills than younger adults In the three countries, people aged 56 to 65 were the most

likely to have Level 1 skills on all three literacy scales. Thirty-eight percent of Canadians, 22% of Germans and 24% of Americans in this age group had Level 1 prose literacy skills. In contrast, 12% of Canadians and Germans, and 20% of Americans aged 26 to 35 had Level 1 prose literacy skills.

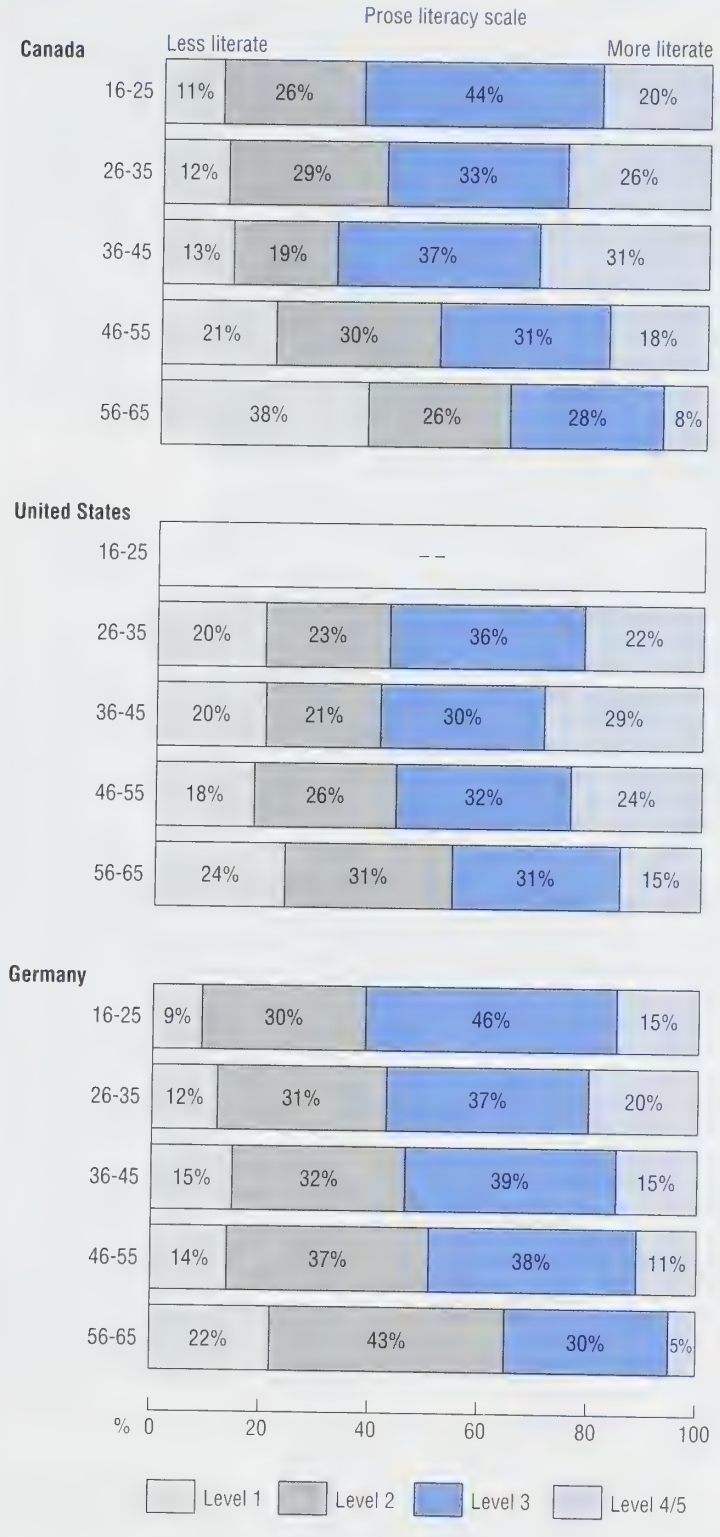
On average, older Canadians, Americans and Germans had less formal education than younger adults. This, in part, explains why older adults have lower literacy levels than younger adults. Literacy skills are first developed in primary and secondary school. For many older adults, formal education ended a long time ago. The literacy skills of older adults also may have declined if their job and daily activities made infrequent use of them. In contrast, younger adults' formal schooling is a more recent experience and they would have had less time to lose unused skills.

Literacy contributes to economic success Literacy skills influence the types of jobs people hold, their earnings and their likelihood of unemployment. Workers with poor literacy skills are vulnerable to lay-off and displacement, and once unemployed may have difficulty finding new jobs. In all countries, and across the three types of literacy skills, the employed had higher literacy skill levels than those who were unemployed or outside the labour force. In Canada, 11% of the employed had Level 1 prose literacy skills, compared with 33% of the unemployed.

Jobs differ in the level of literacy skills required. Canadians, Germans and Americans in managerial or professional jobs were more likely than other workers to have literacy skills at Level 4/5. In Canada, 43% of managerial or professional workers had Level 4/5 prose skills, compared with 11% of machine operators and assemblers. Still, 3% of managers or professionals in Canada, and 4% in Germany and the United States had Level 1 prose literacy. The reason for some managers or professionals having low literacy levels may lie in the heterogeneity of the management and professional occupation group. This group includes supervisors, foremen, store managers, administrative assistants, doctors, engineers and high-level managers.

High levels of literacy also offered monetary rewards. Those with higher

Older adults had lower literacy skills than younger adults in 1994



-- Data not reliable enough to publish.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

literacy skills worked in higher paying jobs and their literacy skills may have allowed them greater ability to understand and take advantage of other income-producing opportunities. In Canada, 39% of those who had Level 4/5 prose skills were in the top personal income quintile.[1] In contrast, 46% of those with Level 1 prose literacy and 30% of those with Level 2 had no personal income from wages or salaries.



Growth industries employed workers with higher literacy skills In Canada, the United States and Germany, workers in industries where employment has grown over the last twenty years, such as finance and personal services, had higher literacy scores. Those in declining industries, such as agriculture and manufacturing, had lower prose literacy scores.

Literacy skills – use them or lose them Schooling nurtures the initial development of literacy skills. It is not surprising that those who had low levels of education exhibited low literacy skills and those with more education had higher literacy skills. Literacy skills, however, can decline if left unused and can improve through extensive use in everyday life.

The IALS found that about one in ten Canadians and Americans, and about one in six Germans, who had no more than primary schooling, had Level 3 or higher prose literacy skills. In contrast, 0.2% of Canadian, 5% of American and 4% of German university degree-holders had Level 1 prose literacy skills. Why such large proportions of university graduates had relatively low prose literacy skills may partly be explained by the nature of the IALS. The IALS assessed the skills of respondents in the national language of the country in which they resided. Some university graduates were immigrants who still may have been unfamiliar with the nuances of the language of their new home country. Others may have lost some literacy skills through lack of use.

Many of those with low levels of education may have improved and maintained their literacy skills through regular use. Book reading, letter writing, library use and participation in adult education and community organizations increased with higher literacy levels. Those with literacy difficulties read less, watched television more and engaged less frequently in activities requiring the use of literacy skills. Without daily use, literacy skills are at risk of deterioration.

Many with low level literacy skills were satisfied with their skill levels Those assessed at Level 1 in prose literacy had very limited reading abilities, yet 46% of Canadians, 78% of Germans and 60% of Americans at this level believed their reading skills on the job were "good" or "excellent." They also gave high ratings to their writing abilities on the job. Those with Level 1 quantitative skills may have had difficulty adding two numbers on an order form, yet over 60% of them believed their numeracy skills were "good" or "excellent" on the job. Despite very limited literacy skills, most Canadians and Americans, and over 40% of Germans with Level 1 literacy skills, regardless of the measure of literacy, felt their reading, writing and numeracy skills were not limiting their job opportunities at all.

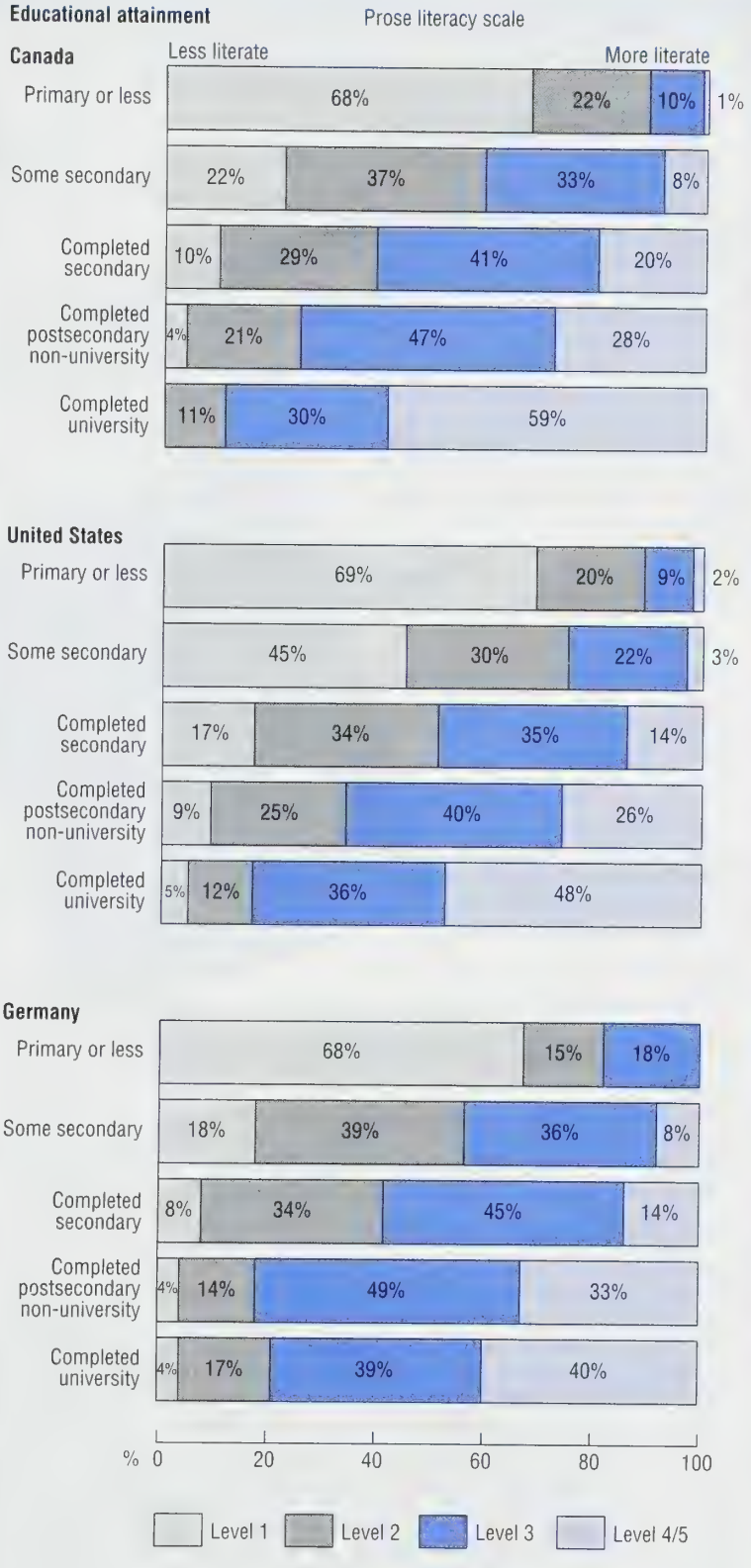
Unemployed adults had low literacy skills CST

Country	Employment status	Prose	Document	Quantitative
		% with Level 1 literacy skills		
Canada	Employed	11	12	11
	Unemployed	33	30	33
	Student	11	8	8
	Other out of labour force	29	38	33
United States	Employed	15	18	16
	Unemployed	32	36	37
	Student	--	--	--
	Other out of labour force	32	37	31
Germany	Employed	11	5	4
	Unemployed	26	18	10
	Student	5	5	4
	Other out of labour force	20	15	11

-- Data not reliable enough to publish.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

[1] The top personal income quintile refers to the 20% of income earners with the highest personal income.

Literacy was strongly related to formal education in 1994



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE.

Implications of low literacy skills Low literacy skills exact a toll not only on an individual's economic and social opportunities, but also on economic productivity and national competitiveness in a global economy. Changes in the workplace and in society will require higher levels of literacy as low-skilled jobs disappear. The volume, variety and complexity of written information has grown as society becomes increasingly information-oriented. More and more adults are now expected to read, understand and use printed materials in a variety of formats.

A large percentage of adults have Level 1 literacy skills, yet many do not perceive that they have a literacy problem, perhaps because they sought situations which did not tax their literacy skills. This may present a barrier for them to seek skill-improvement programs. Those who need to upgrade their basic skills may be reluctant to disclose their needs. Doing so may be an admission of failure in a society that expects people to read and use printed documents effectively.

Many with low literacy skills will be in the labour market for a long time to come. If high-skilled jobs are the wave of the future, many people with low literacy skills may have difficulty pursuing their employment goals. Individuals, communities, employers and governments all have a role to play in improving literacy skills to meet the demands of a modern society.

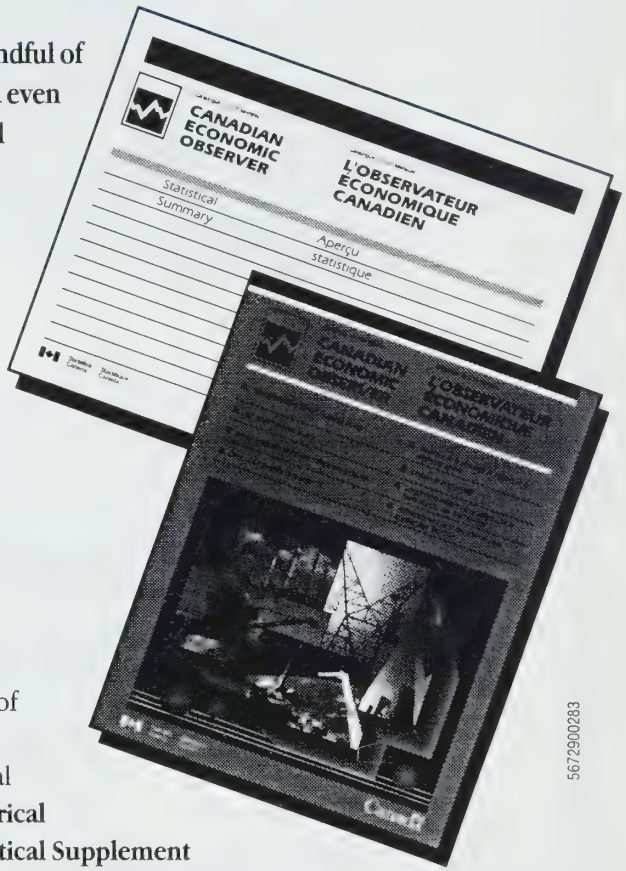
• For more information, see **Literacy, Economy and Society: Results of the first International Adult Literacy Survey**, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, and Statistics Canada, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-545-XPE; **Reading the Future: A Portrait of Literacy in Canada**, Statistics Canada, Human Resources Development Canada and National Literacy Secretariat, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-551-XPE; and "International survey on adult literacy," and "The marginally literate workforce," **Perspectives on Labour and Income**, Summer 1996, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE, Vol. 8, No. 2.

Warren Clark is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends**.

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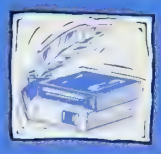
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EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends *in the classroom*

Lesson plan for "**Youth Smoking in Canada**"

Objectives

- ❑ To appreciate some of the health risks associated with smoking.
- ❑ To generate discussion on why young people start to smoke.
- ❑ To work independently and co-operatively in small groups.

Method

1. Provide each student with a copy of the article "Youth Smoking in Canada."
2. Have the students read the article independently, selecting and recording key facts or ideas in point form.
3. Divide the class into groups to discuss why young people start to smoke and what social factors contribute to smoking.
4. Have the groups present their reasons to the class, while the teacher summarizes.
5. As a class, discuss what can be done to prevent young people from starting to smoke. Ask any smokers who have tried to quit smoking to describe their success or failure.
6. Follow-up activities could include asking the school nurse to talk to the students about the health risks of smoking.

Using other resources

- ❑ Read "Trends in Mortality from Smoking-Related Cancers, 1950 to 1991" in the Winter 1995 edition of **Canadian Social Trends** to see how smoking-related cancer death rates have changed.
- ❑ Read "Fifteen Years of AIDS in Canada" in the Summer 1996 edition of **Canadian Social Trends** to compare deaths from HIV/AIDS with those from smoking.
- ❑ Use the **E-STAT** CD-ROM from Statistics Canada to find data on smoking rates for 11-, 13- and 15-year-olds in other countries. Search in the **CANSIM** time series under the Topic "Health and Lifestyle" to find this information.



Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using **CST** that you would like to share with other teachers? Send your ideas or comments to Harris Popplewell, Social Science Teacher at J.S. Woodsworth Secondary School, c/o Joel Yan, University Liaison Program, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. FAX (613) 951-4513. Internet: yanjoel@statcan.ca.



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SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	26,894.8	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0 PR	29,255.6 PR	29,615.3 PR
Annual growth (%)	1.3	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4 PR	1.1 PR	1.2 PR
Immigration[1]	152,413	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	234,457 F	215,470 R
Emigration[1]	40,978	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807 PP	45,949 PP
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	14.5	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4	13.2	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	N/A	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	12,819	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506
– goods sector (000s)	3,873	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653
– service sector (000s)	8,946	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852
Total unemployment (000s)	1,082	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422
Unemployment rate (%)	7.8	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5
Part-time employment (%)	15.2	15.0	15.3	16.3	16.7	17.2	17.0	16.6
Women's participation rate (%)	57.7	58.3	58.7	58.5	58.0	57.9	57.6	57.4
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	33.7	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income	40,904	43,995	45,618	46,389	47,199	46,717	48,091	*
% of families with low income (1992 Base)	12.2	11.1	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.6	13.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	65.4	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.1	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,505.9 E
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	817.1	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 P	964.7 E	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,418	2,573	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356	3,552	3,647 E
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	5.5	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease – men	39.5	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	36.3	*
– women	43.4	42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	39.7 R	*
% of deaths due to cancer – men	27.0	27.2	27.8	28.1	28.4 R	27.9	28.3	*
– women	26.4	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	*
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	*	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	865	908	970	1,056	1,081 R	1,072	1,038 R	995
– property	5,419	5,271	5,593	6,141	5,890 R	5,525	5,212 R	5,237
– homicide	2.1	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	2.0
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1995 $000,000)	172,648.3 R	175,372.4 R	183,505.7 R	190,745.5 R	207,245.8 R	214,317.3 R	215,567.4	208,494.6
– as a % of total expenditures	56.1	56.1 R	56.0 R	56.8 R	58.5 R	60.0 R	60.1	58.3
– as a % of GDP	23.2 R	23.0 R	24.5 R	26.7 R	28.8 R	29.4 R	28.2	26.9
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,016.4	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	2,910.0
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,835.1	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,853.0	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 $) – annual % change	+5.0	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.8	+2.2	+4.1	+2.3
Annual inflation rate (%)	4.0	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1
Urban housing starts	189,635	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526

– Not available * Not yet available P Preliminary data E Estimate m Figures as of March IR Revised intercensal estimates
PD Final postcensal estimates PP Preliminary postcensal estimates PR Updated postcensal estimates R Revised data F Final data
[1]For year ending June 30.
[2]Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

Step families growing



In 1995, there were about 430,000 stepfamilies in Canada, accounting for 10% of couples with children. Slightly more than one-half of these couples were married, while the remainder were living common-law. One-half (50%) of stepfamilies only included children living with their biological mother and a stepfather, while one-sixth (13%) were made up of children living with their biological father and a stepmother. The remaining one-third (37%) of stepfamilies were "blended": with children both parents brought from any previous unions or a combination of children from a previous union and the current union.

Canadian Families: Diversity and Change,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 12F0061XPE.

Student loans harder to repay



For the class of 1990, the ratio of student loan debt at graduation to earnings after graduation were higher than for earlier graduates. Between 1982 and 1990, this debt-to-earnings ratio doubled for graduates with bachelor's degrees. It moved from 0.14 to 0.28 for men and from 0.17 to 0.32 for women. Although 1990 graduates with college/CEGEP diplomas, master's degrees and doctorates also experienced higher debt loads, the increases were not as dramatic. Furthermore, the ratios were lower among these graduates than among graduates with bachelor's degrees.

Education Quarterly Review, Summer 1996,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 81-003-XPB.

Fewer work-related deaths



Job-related fatalities have dropped from an annual rate of 11 per 100,000 paid workers during the 1976 to 1981 period, to 7 per 100,000 between 1988 and 1993. Two occupations had strikingly high fatality rates during the 1988 to 1993 period: mining and quarrying (specifically cutting, handling and loading) with a rate of 281 deaths per 100,000 workers, and construction (insulating), with 246 per 100,000.

Perspectives on Labour and Income, Summer 1996,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.

Over half of legal aid for family and civil matters



Spending on legal aid amounted to $22.10 per Canadian in 1994/95. More than half (58%) of subsidies for legal services were for family, civil and other non-criminal matters, while the rest were for criminal matters.

Legal aid in Canada: resource and caseload statistics, 1994/95,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 85F0015XPB.

Low income picture much improved for unattached seniors



The incidence of low income among unattached individuals (using Statistics Canada's Low Income Cut-offs) dropped very little between 1980 and 1994, to 40.6% from 43.5%. Among those aged 65 and over, however, the incidence dropped considerably. In 1980, 61% of senior men who did not live with family had low incomes; by 1994, the proportion had been cut in half, to 32%. Unattached senior women did not fare as well as their male counterparts, but their risk of having low income fell to 53% in 1994 from 72% in 1980.

Over the same period, unattached individuals under age 65 experienced a slight rise in their risk of having a low income. The rate for men rose to 33% in 1994 from 29% in 1980, while that for women rose to 45% from 41%.

Low Income Persons, 1980 to 1993,
Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-569-XPB.

2% of couples separated in 1993



In 1993, 253,000 people separated from a common-law or marriage partner. Seven out of ten were in their 20s or 30s. Almost two-thirds of the people who separated had children in the home, and women were more likely to keep the children after separation. By the end of the year, 88% of the mothers had some or all of the children with them, compared with only 27% of the fathers.

Separation also means that one or both partners leave the family home. The higher proportion of men who moved at least once during the year (73% compared with 65% of women) indicates that it is more often the man who moves out following a separation.

Life Events: How Families Change, **Dynamics**, vol. 5 no. 1,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 75-002-XPB.

One-fifth of Canada's labour force experienced unemployment in 1993



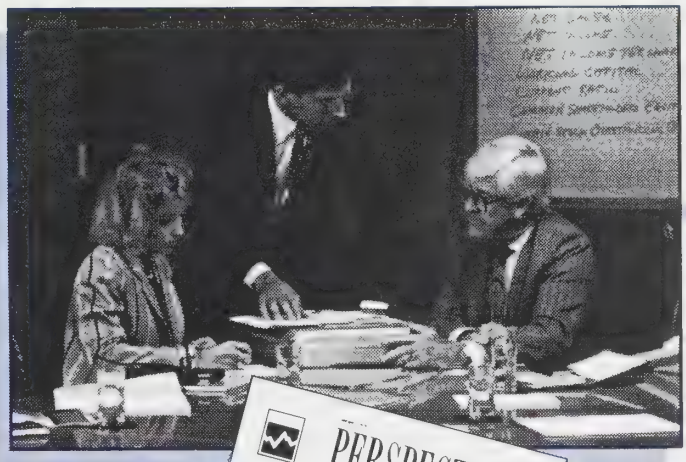
According to the Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics, about 22% of the labour force, or 3.5 million people, was unemployed at least once in 1993. Most of these people cycled in and out of unemployment, and for many (20%) the unemployment experience was short-lived, at four weeks or less. However, 13% of unemployed Canadians were without a job all year.

Transition in the Labour Force, **Dynamics**, vol. 5 no. 2,
Statistics Canada, Product no. 75-002-XPB.

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